ENGLISH REVIEW GRAMMAR

WALTER KAY SMART

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NEW YORK
F. S. CROFTS & CO.
1927

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First printing, September, 1925
Second printing, August, 1926
Third printing, September, 1927

THE VAIL-BALLOU PRESS
BINGHAMTON AND NEW YORK

PREFACE

The purpose of this book is primarily to furnish a review of English grammar for mature students who need a more thorough knowledge of the structure of the English language. Experience has shown that the prevailing lack of this knowledge is a serious handicap in composition courses, as well as in the study of foreign languages, and many institutions have found it necessary to require a systematic review of grammar to remedy this condition.

The book is divided into two parts. Part I contains a simplified review of the fundamental grammatical principles and forms. It is elementary enough for those who have practically forgotten their public school work in grammar, and at the same time it is complete enough to acquaint them with grammatical terminology and the standard constructions which constitute the framework or backbone of the language.

Part II supplements the material in Part I. English is a living language and is constantly changing. The result is that there have grown up a large number of constructions which do not conform to the ordinary rules. For instance, the ordinary statement of the formal use of tenses gives an incomplete and even erroneous idea of their actual use in modern English; cases of pronouns are subject to many irregularities; and adverbial elements show an aversion to formal classification. The more important of these variations from the standard forms are discussed in Part II.

This division of the book is intended to meet two needs:

(1) It may be used for reference by students who are

covering Part I in class and want a more complete discussion of certain subjects.

(2) It may be used as a text for review in more advanced classes. Each chapter is provided with a summary of the essential features of the same subject as discussed in Part I, or this material is made accessible by means of cross references. In this way different points which were treated under various headings in the first part are brought together in one place, and combined with additional material. Exercises are given in the Appendix.

Especial attention has been devoted to making the book teachable. Part I, in mimeographed sheets, has been used with classes for over six years by a number of instructors, and its present form is the result of this varied experience. The discussions have been made as simple and non-technical as possible, and the arrangement of material is such that the student is not confused by the introduction of exceptions and irregular constructions while he is engaged in mastering the standard forms.

Acknowledgments are due to the instructors who have used the book in its preliminary stages, and especially to Mr. R. D. Highfill, who has made many suggestions for changes in the manner of presentation.

W. K. S.

Evanston, Illinois.

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INTRODUCTION

PARTS OF SPEECH

A sentence consists of words so combined as to express a thought. Each word has a particular function to perform in the sentence, and all words are classified according to these functions into eight classes or **Parts of Speech.**

The eight Parts of Speech are Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

A **Noun** is the name of something—as, *house, man, liberty:* "The *house* is burning."

A **Pronoun** is a word used for a noun—as, *he, they, who:* "*They* are here."

An **Adjective** is a word that describes a noun or modifies its meaning—as, *black, small, first:* "He wore a *black* hat."

A **Verb** is a word that makes a statement about the subject of the sentence. It expresses action or state—as, *run, climb, eat, rest, think, is:* "The boys *run* awkwardly."

An **Adverb** is a word used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb—as, *quickly, safely, soon:* "They arrived *safely.*"

A **Preposition** is a connecting word used to show the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence —as, *for, from, through, at, in, over:* "The family came *from* the city."

A **Conjunction** is a connecting word used to join words or groups of words in the sentence—as, *and, or, if, although:* "The man *and* the child were lost."

An **Interjection** is an exclamatory word which has little or no grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence—as, *alas, pshaw, oh, ah: "Alas,* he has gone."

These eight classes fall naturally into four groups, divided according to the relation existing between the different Parts of Speech:

(1) Nouns; Pronouns (used for nouns); Adjectives (modifiers of nouns).

(2) Verbs; Adverbs (modifiers of verbs).

(3) Prepositions and Conjunctions, which are connecting words.

(4) Interjections, which are usually without grammatical relation with the other Parts of Speech.

The following sentence contains seven of the Parts of Speech and illustrates their use:

Two small boys crept silently to the door and opened it.

Boys and *door* are nouns—they are the names of things.

It is a pronoun standing for the noun *door.*

Two and *small* are adjectives modifying the noun *boys.*

The is an adjective (article, see Sec. 89), modifying the noun *door.*

Crept and *opened* are verbs—they tell what the boys did: that is, they make a statement about the boys.

Silently is an adverb modifying the verb *crept*—it describes the manner of their creeping.

To is a preposition—it shows the relation of the noun *door* to the verb *crept.*

And is a conjunction connecting the verbs *crept* and *opened.*

CHAPTER I

NOUNS

1. A Noun is the name of something.

The something which a noun names may be:

(1) A living or an inanimate thing having physical existence: as, *man, horse, tree, rock, victor, city.*

(2) A mental or spiritual concept: as, *mercy, patriotism, love, error, truth.*

(3) Some quality, property, or condition belonging to an object: as, *whiteness, weakness, strength, depth.*

(4) An action: as, *running, swimming, reading.*

Note. In the sentence, "*Running* is good exercise," *running* is a noun because it is the name of an act and is the subject of the verb *is;* but notice that in "He is *running* a race," *running* is not a noun: it a part of the verb *is running,* which tells what he is doing.

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

2. Nouns are divided into two classes: Common Nouns and Proper Nouns.

(1) A **Common Noun** is the name belonging to all the members of a class of objects—that is, the name is *common* to all members of that class: as, *city, ship, woman, religion, river.*

(2) A **Proper Noun** is the distinctive name of an individual member of a class: as, *Chicago* (a member of the class

city); *Lusitania* (*ship*); *Mary* (*woman*); *Christianity* (*religion*).

The word "proper" is from the same root as "property," and conveys the idea of "one's own."

3. In writing, a proper noun is distinguished by beginning it with a capital letter. Such words as *Clydesdale* (That horse is a Clydesdale), the *English,* an *American,* a *Mason* (a member of the Masonic Order), *Republicans, Catholics,* etc., are also written with a capital letter. These are really common nouns, since they are names common to all members of a class, but they are derived from proper nouns.

4. Special Classes. The two classes—common and proper—cover all nouns. Included in these two, however, are the following special classes:

(1) An **Abstract Noun** is one that names a mental or spiritual concept, or some quality or condition of an object (see (2) and (3) in Sec. 1): as, *hatred, truth, strength, depth.*

(2) A **Collective Noun** is the name of a collection or group of similar objects: as, *army, flock, committee, nation, firm* (a commercial organization), *Union League Club, Democratic Party, Atlas Chemical Company.*

(3) A **Compound Noun** is made up of two or more nouns, or a noun and some other word or words, which form a unit-idea: as, *grandfather, stairway, washerwoman, commander-in-chief, sister-in-law, ticket office, Congress Hotel, Blake and Company.*

Note. A collective noun may also be compound.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS

5. Nouns have Number, Gender, and Case. They also have Person, but the discussion of this property is reserved for the chapter on Pronouns (see Sec. 35).

Number

6. Number is that property of a noun or pronoun which indicates whether one object, or more than one object, is designated.

Nouns have two numbers: the Singular and the Plural.

(1) The **Singular Number** indicates one object only: as, *boy, house, man.*

(2) The **Plural Number** indicates two or more objects: as, *boys, houses, men.*

The plural number of most nouns is formed by adding *-s* or *-es* to the singular: as, *park, parks; book, books; porch, porches; box, boxes.* (See Secs. 326 ff. for other methods of forming the plural.)

Gender

7. Gender is that property of a noun or pronoun by which the sex of an object is distinguished.

There are three genders: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

(1) The **Masculine Gender** indicates a being of the male sex: as, *man, boy, father, gander, Henry.*

(2) The **Feminine Gender** indicates a being of the female sex: as, *lady, niece, sister, hen, mare, Alice.*

(3) The **Neuter Gender** indicates an object without sex: as, *flower, stone, water, city.*

8. In addition to these three it is convenient to use the term **Common Gender** in referring to nouns which may be either masculine or feminine, but which do not designate the gender: as, *child, parent, animal, bird, cousin.*

Some inanimate objects, naturally of the neuter gender, are often treated as if they were masculine or feminine. A ship is commonly referred to as *she;* a locomotive engineer speaks affectionately of his engine as *she;* a machine operator, talking of his lathe or drill-press, says, *"She's* working well today";

semi-poetically the sun becomes *he*—the moon becomes *she*. This usage is chiefly colloquial or poetical; in ordinary prose, as in a scientific treatise, all these words are treated as neuter nouns, with perhaps the exception of *ship*, which rather persistently retains the feminine gender. (See also Sec. 36, note.)

For differences in form in the masculine and feminine genders, see Sec. 324.

EXERCISE 1

Point out all the nouns; tell whether they are common or proper nouns, collective or compound nouns; give the number and gender of each:

1. The ship was owned by the Cunard Company. 2. The *Great Western* was then the largest ship in commission. 3. A storm destroyed the crops in Kansas. 4. Every state is entitled to representation in Congress. 5. General Lee surrendered his army. 6. The general ordered the regiment to attack the enemy. 7. The answer to the challenge was a declaration of war. 8. The weight of the entire mass was then calculated. 9. John Smith and family were the guests of his sister on Monday. 10. Two children were injured when the horses ran away. 11. The whiteness of the snow was dazzling. 12. Every employé of the company was given an increase in salary. 13. Virginia was one of the original thirteen colonies. 14. The women in the party had brought their knitting. 15. This company has its headquarters in the northern part of England. 16. Bryant, the author of "Thanatopsis," was an American poet. 17. Fishing is a fascinating sport. 18. The Americans were warmly welcomed by the people of France. 19. Man's inhumanity to man makes countless thousands mourn. 20. These soldiers were not lacking in courage. 21. The house stood in the middle of a well-kept lawn. 22. The reason for this attack will never be known. 23. His ingenuity enabled him to find a remedy.

Case

9. Case is a property of a noun or pronoun which helps to show the relation of the noun or pronoun to the other words in the sentence.

Nouns have three cases:

(1) The **Nominative Case** is the case used primarily in the subject of a verb and in the predicate noun (see Secs. 18, 19):

The *man* spoke earnestly.
John is a *broker*.

(2) The **Objective Case** is the case used primarily in the object of a verb or of a preposition (see Secs. 20–22):

The boy broke the *window*.
They came from the *city*.

(3) The **Possessive Case** is the case which normally denotes possession:

This is the *girl's* hat.

10. Forms. The three cases have the following forms:

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	boy	boys	man	men
Possessive	boy's	boys'	man's	men's
Objective	boy	boys	man	men

11. The Nominative and the Objective Cases. The nominative case and the objective case of a noun have the same form. Hence there can be no confusion in the use of these two, and the discussion of them is therefore reserved for the chapter on Pronouns, in which a careful distinction is necessary because the two cases frequently have different forms (see Secs. 41, 42).

12. The Possessive Case. The possessive case of a noun is distinguished by the use of an apostrophe (').

(1) The possessive case of a singular noun is regularly formed by adding *'s* to the simple noun: as, *man's, horse's, boy's.*

(2) The possessive case of a plural noun is formed:

(a) By adding only an apostrophe to the simple plural,

when the plural ends in *s:* as, *horses'* (simple plural, *horses*), *boys'* (simple plural, *boys*).

(b) By adding *'s,* as in the singular, when the simple plural does not end in *s:* as, *men's* (simple plural, *men*), *children's* (simple plural, *children*).

In a few singular nouns which end in *s* or an *s*-sound (like *ce*) only the apostrophe is added, just as in the plural: as, for *Jesus'* sake, for *conscience'* sake. This is especially true when, as in the preceding examples, other *s*-sounds precede or follow. It is not, however, incorrect to use the regular *'s* in such instances.

(3) In compound nouns and in groups of words having a unit idea the sign of the possessive case is added to the last member of the group: as, *father-in-law's, the Princess of Wales', the Queen of England's.*

13. The possessive case usually denotes possession:

Harry's hat was lost.
A crowd had gathered before the *mayor's* house.

Sometimes a modified kind of possession is indicated. For instance, in the expressions, "Ohm's law" and "Kipling's poems," Ohm and Kipling are the possessors only in the sense that they are the discoverers or originators. Compare the two sorts of possession shown in the sentence, "This is *John's* copy of *Whittier's* poems."

14. In some uses of the possessive case the idea of ownership is entirely lacking: as, a *day's* work; a *year's* salary; a *penny's* worth; the *law's* delays; a *hand's* breadth. These mean "the work *of a day,*" "the salary *for a year,*" etc.

15. A noun in the possessive case is usually equivalent to a phrase beginning with *of.* Thus we may say either *"Kipling's* poems" or "the poems *of Kipling";* "the *lawyer's* papers" or "the papers *of the lawyer";* "the *mayor's* house" or "the house *of the mayor.*"

We would not, however, say "the book *of Mary*" for "*Mary's* book," or "the law *of Ohm*" for "*Ohm's* law." For such distinctions in usage the student must be guided by his feeling for the proper "sound" of the expression.

16. As a general rule the possessive case is not used with inanimate objects, a phrase with *of* being employed in its place: thus, "the roof *of the house*" (not "the *house's* roof"); "the branches *of the tree*" (not "the *tree's* branches"). The use of the possessive in expressions like "a *day's* work" (see Sec. 14) is an exception to this rule. Exceptions occur also in *time's delay, earth's surface, sun's heat, ship's mast,* etc.

EXERCISE 2

Give the possessive case, both singular and plural, for the following nouns:

girl, boy, man, wife, horse, goose, hero, baby, child, family, prince, mouse, brother, woman, soldier, company, ox, guest, professor, workman.

THE PRINCIPAL USES OF NOUNS

17. The principal uses of a noun in a sentence are as follows:

1. Subject of a Verb
2. Predicate Noun
3. Direct Object of a Verb
4. Indirect Object of a Verb
5. Object of a Preposition
6. Apposition
7. Objective Complement
8. Nominative Absolute
9. Direct Address

For some less common uses, see Secs. 28, 300 ff.

18. Subject of a Verb. A noun may be used as the Subject of a Verb:

The *army* retreated.
The *train* was wrecked.

The subject names the person or thing about which something is said by the verb.

19. Predicate Noun. A noun may be used as a Predicate Noun:

The king became a *tyrant.*
The postmaster is *John Smith.*
My uncle was a *captain.*
The man has turned *traitor.*

A predicate noun is normally placed after the verb; it answers the question *what?* or *who?* and it represents the same person or thing as the subject. Thus, in the examples given, "The king became *what?*"—Answer, a *tyrant.* "The postmaster is *who?*"—Answer, *John Smith.* The *tyrant* is the same person as the *king* (subject); *John Smith* is the same person as the *postmaster* (subject).

20. Direct Object of a Verb. A noun may be used as the Direct Object of a Verb:

The boy wrote the *letter.*
The assassin killed the *tyrant.*

The direct object names the receiver of the action indicated by the verb. It is normally placed after the verb; it answers the question *what?* or *whom?* and it represents a person or thing *different* from the subject. Thus, "The boy wrote *what?*"—Answer, a *letter.* "The assassin killed *whom?*"—Answer, the *tyrant.* The *letter* is *not* the same person or thing as *boy* (subject); the *tyrant* is *not* the same person as *assassin* (subject).

Both the predicate noun and the direct object of a verb answer the same question, *what?* or *who?* (*whom?*). They are readily distinguished, however, by their relations with the subject: the predicate noun represents the *same* person or thing as the subject; the direct object represents a *different* person or thing. The

only exception to the latter statement occurs in the use of a reflexive pronoun as the object of a verb (see Sec. 51).

21. Indirect Object of a Verb. A noun may be used as the Indirect Object of a Verb:

The boy wrote his *mother* a letter.
John bought the *child* some candy.

The indirect object tells *to whom* or *to what, for whom* or *for what* something was done. In the first sentence given above, the direct object *letter* tells *what* the boy wrote, and the indirect object *mother* tells *to whom* he wrote it; in the second sentence, the direct object *candy* tells *what* John bought, and the indirect object *child* tells *for whom* he bought it.

A phrase introduced by the preposition *to* or *for* can be used instead of an indirect object. Thus the first sentence would become "The boy wrote a letter *to his mother*"; the second sentence would become "John bought some candy *for the child*." With an indirect object, however, the *to* or *for* is never expressed in the sentence; if it were expressed, the noun would be the object of the preposition (see Sec. 22), and not an indirect object.

An indirect object almost always precedes the direct object; a phrase equivalent usually follows the direct object.

Note. Some grammarians restrict the term indirect object to those constructions which are equivalent to the phrases *to what* or *to whom*, and thus exclude those which mean *for what* or *for whom*. There is sufficient similarity between the two groups, however, to warrant our regarding both of them as indirect objects, and this procedure has the advantage of simplifying the classification.

For the same reason, we may classify as indirect objects certain nouns which are equivalent to *of whom* when used after the verb *ask*. Thus the sentence, "The employer asked the *clerk* a question," is equivalent to "The employer asked a question *of the clerk*." Here, however, the idea of *to* is also present, for asking something *of* a person implies addressing one's self *to* him.

22. Object of a Preposition. A noun may be used as the Object of a Preposition:

The merchant sent the coffee to the *customer.*
The travelers found shelter under a *tree.*
The train came from *Atlanta.*

Here *customer, tree,* and *Atlanta* are the objects of the prepositions *to, under,* and *from,* respectively. (Prepositions are words like *of, before, at, over, beside, behind, through, for, in, into, on,* etc.)

The object of a preposition answers the question *what?* or *whom?* after the preposition: thus, "He asked for a *dollar.*" For *what?*—Answer, a *dollar.*

23. In Apposition. A noun may be used in Apposition with another Noun:

My friend, the *lawyer,* has just arrived.
I saw the butcher, *Mr. Jones.*
We next visited Washington, the *capital* of the United States.

A noun in apposition with another noun represents the same person or thing as the other noun: that is, it is another name for the same person or thing. In a combination of two nouns in this relation, the second one is said to be in apposition with the first, not the first with the second.

Note. A predicate noun and a noun in apposition with the subject both represent the same person or thing as the subject. They are distinguished by the fact that the predicate noun is connected with the subject by a verb, whereas the noun in apposition has no intervening verb and is usually placed immediately after the subject:

My friend is a *lawyer* (predicate noun).
My friend, the *lawyer,* has arrived (apposition).

24. Objective Complement. A noun may be used as an Objective Complement:

They made his father *colonel.*
We elected John *president.*

The objective complement is so called because it is added to the direct object to complete the meaning expressed by the verb ("complement" means something that completes). Thus, in the sentence just given, they didn't make his *father:* they made his *father colonel.* A simple test is to see whether *to be* can be inserted between the direct object and the noun following: for example, "They made his father *to be* colonel." If *to be* can thus be inserted without changing the meaning of the sentence, the second noun is an objective complement.

The objective complement is commonly used with verbs expressing the idea of *making, electing, appointing, choosing,* and similar ideas. It also, however, occurs after other verbs:

They considered the man a *genius.*
We found the boy a raving *maniac.*

25. Nominative Absolute. A noun may be used Absolutely with a Participle, to form the so-called Nominative Absolute construction:

The *time having come,* we went to the meeting.
The *work being easy,* we soon finished it.

For the present, it is sufficient to say that a participle is a verb form ending in *-ing,* such as *being* or *having,* although later we shall have to modify that definition. The nominative absolute construction consists of a noun followed by a participle under the following conditions:

(a) the participle is not preceded by *is, was, were, will be, has been,* or any other form of the verb *be;*

(b) the noun which the participle modifies is usually at the beginning of the sentence, and at first sight looks as if it were going to be the subject of the sentence but later another noun is used as the subject.

For example, in the sentence, "The guests having arrived, dinner was served," *guests* is in the nominative absolute con-

struction with the participle *having arrived,* and *dinner* is the subject of the sentence. On the other hand, in "The guests, having arrived, took the places assigned to them," *guests* is not in the nominative absolute construction: it is the subject of the sentence (subject of the verb *took*).

26. Direct Address. A noun may be used in Direct Address:

Harry, it is time for dinner.
This incident, my *friends,* must not be ignored.
John, come here.
Boys, listen to me.

Here *Harry, friends, John,* and *boys* are the names or words by which the persons are addressed. These nouns are not the subjects of the verbs. The subject in the first sentence is *it;* in the second, *incident;* in the third and fourth the subject is *you* understood (the subject is usually omitted in a direct command, since it is always *you*). With the third example compare "John comes here every day"—in which *John* is the subject.

Notice that a word in direct address is set off by a comma or commas.

27. Any word having one of these nine uses in a sentence is a noun or noun-equivalent in that sentence, although it may be another part of speech in another sentence:

Are is a verb.
He misspelled *among.*
The *poor* are always with us.

In the first sentence *are,* which is ordinarily a verb, is a noun-equivalent, for it is the subject of the verb *is.* In the second, the preposition *among* is a noun-equivalent, because it is the object of the verb. In the third, *poor*—regularly an adjective—is a noun-equivalent, the subject of the verb.

28. Nouns Used as Other Parts of Speech. Some words which are ordinarily nouns may be used:

(1) As **Adverbs** (adverb-equivalents), to denote *time, place, measure,* etc.:

The ship sails *tomorrow.*
The clerk went *home.*
He walked a *mile.*

In origin these words are nouns, since they are names of things; but in these sentences they are used as adverbs (any word which tells *when, where, how, how much,* or *how far* is an adverb—see Sec. 173).

(2) As **Adjectives** (adjective-equivalents)—see Sec. 86:

This is the *girl's* hat.
It happened on *Monday* night.

EXERCISE 3

Point out the subject and verb of each sentence, and give the use of every noun (subject of a verb, direct or indirect object of a verb, and the other uses in Secs. 17, 28.):

1. The army has defeated the enemy. 2. The speaker is a lawyer from Chicago. 3. The audience gave the speaker an enthusiastic welcome. 4. Harry, take this letter to the office. 5. The minutes having been approved, the society proceeded to the election of officers. 6. The directors appointed Mr. Jones manager for a term of four years. 7. Mr. Jones was made manager by the directors. 8. At midnight a messenger brought Mr. Smith a telegram. 9. Friends, we must do our part in this war. 10. The message was signed by J. E. Allen, the treasurer. 11. This city has become the center of the steel industry. 12. The rain being over, we proceeded with our work. 13. The house, a large brick building, was totally destroyed. 14. Patriotism is the love of country. 15. The man was indicted for conspiracy against the government. 16. The company granted the employés an increase in salary. 17. A messenger brought the news to the commander. 18. Washington was the commander-

in-chief of the American army. 19. John's father had been appointed ambassador to England. 20. The writer of the play, a graduate of Oxford, is now in this country. 21. The roads being rough, the party could make little progress that day. 22. A small boy handed the usher a letter. 23. A small boy handed a letter to the usher. 24. The club made the distinguished visitor an honorary member. 25. Near the river stood the factory, an unsightly group of grimy buildings. 26. This success, gentlemen, is the result of months of labor. 27. The governor being absent, our committee could not present its plans. 28. A leader of men must be a student of human nature. 29. The company declared a dividend for the stockholders. 30. Because of this fact, the meeting was a memorable occasion. 31. Each bar weighs a hundred pounds. 32. They weighed each bar carefully at the office. 33. Frank, give your father this pencil. 34. Later, his opponents became his .most enthusiastic supporters. 35. My father met his neighbor, the judge, at the post office. 36. They named their daughter Elizabeth. 37. St. Paul and Minneapolis are sometimes called the "Twin Cities." 38. The man's cruelty was equalled only by his cunning. 39. Three attacks having failed, the enemy abandoned their attempt. 40. Yes, John, send the package today. 41. The *Olympia,* the flag-ship of the fleet, steamed slowly into the harbor. 42. The governor's house was a marble palace. 43. On the bench sat two young men, evidently employés of the neighboring paper mill. 44. They awarded the corporal a medal for bravery. 45. He had walked five miles. 46. Well, children, your father has been appointed postmaster. 47. The meeting having been adjourned, the audience filed slowly from the room. 48. We met at the home of the secretary, Mr. Roberts. 49. My friend has bought his son a pony. 50. The directors elected Mr. Harris secretary. 51. The food, being well cooked, was very palatable.

EXERCISE 4

Make three original sentences illustrating each of the uses of a noun as given in Secs. 17, 28.

CHAPTER II

PRONOUNS

29. A Pronoun is a word used for a noun.

Its most common use is as a substitute word employed to prevent the awkward repetition of a noun.

Take, for instance, "John asked *his* mother to send *him* the book which *he* left in *his* room." If there were no pronouns, we should have to say, "John asked *John's* mother to send *John* the book, the *book John* left in *John's* room." The advantage gained by the use of the pronouns is obvious.

30. Antecedent of a Pronoun. The noun for which the pronoun stands is called the Antecedent of the pronoun.

Thus in the sentence given above, *John* is the antecedent of *his, him, he,* and *his;* and *book* is the antecedent of *which.*

"Antecedent" is derived from the Latin and means "going before."

The antecedent may be compound: that is, it may consist of two or more nouns:

Bring the *book* and the *tablet* if you find *them.*

31. A pronoun may also be used as the antecedent of another pronoun:

He who hesitates is lost (*he* is the antecedent of *who*).
Everyone will do *his* best (*everyone* is the antecedent of *his*).

32. Classes of Pronouns. Pronouns are divided into the following classes:

Personal Pronouns: "*He* knew *their* names."
Relative Pronouns: "John met the man *who* was here."

Interrogative Pronouns: *"What* was the answer?"
Demonstrative Pronouns: *"That* is the best book."
Indefinite Pronouns: *"Anything* will satisfy the boys."

33. Properties and Uses of Pronouns. Pronouns have Person, Number, Gender, and Case. With the exception of a few details, especially in matters of form, what has been said of Number, Gender, and Case of Nouns applies to Pronouns also.

Pronouns have, in general, the same uses as Nouns (see Sec. 17).

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

34. The Personal Pronouns are *I, you, he, she,* and *it,* together with their various forms for case and number:

	First Person	Second Person	Third Person		
		masculine or feminine	masc.	fem.	neut.
		Singular Number			
Nom.	I	you	he	she	it
Poss.	my, mine	your, yours	his	her, hers	its
Obj.	me	you	him	her	it
		Plural Number			
Nom.	we	you	they		
Poss.	our, ours	your, yours	their, theirs		
Obj.	us	you	them		

Person

35. Personal pronouns are divided into three grammatical "persons" according to the relation existing between the individual who is speaking and the individual or thing to which the pronoun refers.

(1) The **First Person** indicates the *person speaking:* as, *I, me, we, us,* etc.

(2) The **Second Person** indicates the *person or thing spoken to:* as, *you, your, yours.*

(3) The **Third Person** indicates the *person or thing spoken of:* as, *he, she, it, him, her,* etc.

Note. Nouns also have these three grammatical persons:

First Person: I, *Frank Brown,* have sworn to this statement.
Second Person: *William,* open the door.
Third Person: The *road* is rough.

Gender

36. In the **First** and **Second Persons** there is no change in form to indicate gender, and the pronoun is of masculine or feminine gender according to whether the person or thing to which it refers is male or female, respectively. The first and second person pronouns may therefore be said to have common gender (see Sec. 8).

In the **Third Person** there are different pronouns for the different genders in the singular number—*he, she,* and *it,* with their various forms, being used when the person or thing spoken of is male, female, or without sex, respectively. In the plural, the forms are the same for all the genders.

Note. It is often used in referring to animals or to very small children, although they are male or female. See also Sec. 345 (6).

Number

37. The **First Person** pronouns in the singular number (*I, my, mine, me*) are used by the speaker in referring to himself.

The first person pronouns in the plural number (*we, our, ours, us*) are used by the speaker in referring to himself and

some other person or persons with whom he is associated in a particular action: he is the speaker for the group.

The use of the so-called "editorial *we*" by editorial writers (*"we* believe," *"we* think," instead of *"I* believe," *"I* think") is based on the idea that the writer is supposedly expressing not his own opinions, but those of the organization and staff which he represents.

38. The **Second Person** pronoun has the same forms for both the singular and plural numbers: *you, your, yours, you.*

The older singular forms, *thou, thy* or *thine, thee,* which were formerly in common use, belong to the so-called "solemn" style and are now employed rarely except in prayer and poetry; in ordinary speech they have been supplanted by the forms, *you, your* or *yours, you.* Since *you* was originally a plural form, the plural verb is always used when it is the subject, even when only one person is addressed: thus, "You *were* alone," never "You *was* alone." The older nominative plural *ye* is also not now employed in ordinary speech.

39. The **Third Person** pronouns, as we have seen, have the same form in the plural for all genders: *they, their* or *theirs, them.*

Case

40. With a few exceptions, the personal pronouns have different forms for the nominative, possessive, and objective cases: thus, nominative *he;* possessive *his;* objective *him* (see the table in Sec. 34). The proper form to employ is determined by the way the pronoun is used in the sentence (pronouns have the same uses as nouns; see Sec. 17).

41. A **Nominative Case** form (*I, we, you, he, she, it, they*) must be employed when the pronoun is used:

(1) As the subject of a verb:

He is coming.
They were in the city.

(2) As a predicate pronoun (the same construction as a predicate noun; see Sec. 19):

That man is *he*.
It is *I*.
It was *they*.

It is incorrect to use the objective case in these constructions. Do not say "That man is *him*," or "It is *me*."

(3) In apposition with the subject of a verb or with a predicate noun:

John Smith—*he* of whom I have already spoken—was the leader of the colonists.
The man was John Rolfe, *he* who later married Pocahontas.

(4) In the Nominative Absolute construction:

They having arrived at last, the conference was resumed.

(5) In direct address:

Now, *you* leaders, what is to be done?

42. An **Objective Case** form (*me, us, you, him, her, it, them*) must be employed when the pronoun is used:

(1) As the direct object of a verb:

The officer saw *us*.
A friend met *him*.

(2) As the indirect object of a verb:

The clerk gave *me* the book.
We sent *them* some flowers.

(3) As the object of a preposition:

I have a letter from *him*.
We waited for *them*.

(4) In apposition with an object of a verb or of a preposition:

There they found Black Hawk—*him* and his band of Indians.

Note. Theoretically, a pronoun used as an objective complement would also be in the objective case, but in practice the objective complement is seldom a personal pronoun.

43. The **Possessive Case** of pronouns, like that of nouns, denotes possession.

The shorter possessive forms—*my, our, your, her,* and *their*—are used when a noun follows: as, "This is *my* book."

The longer forms—*mine, ours, yours, hers,* and *theirs*—are used when there is no noun following: as, "This book is *mine.*" (In older English and in poetry the longer forms also occur before nouns: as, "*Mine* eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord.")

The possessive case of personal pronouns does not have an apostrophe: thus, *its, hers, theirs.* The form *it's* is not a possessive case, but is the contraction for *it is:* as, "*It's* a good book."

44. Case after *Than* and *As*. The case of the pronoun after *than* and *as* in comparisons requires especial attention. Shall we say, for example, "He is as strong as *I*," or "He is as strong as *me*"; "He is stronger than *I*," or "He is stronger than *me*"? These are elliptical constructions (see Chapter XII), and the proper form of the pronoun can be readily determined by expanding the sentence to its complete form. Thus the preceding sentences mean "He is as strong as *I* (am)," "He is stronger than *I* (am)." The form *I* is correct because it is the subject of the verb *am.*

Again, the sentence, "He visits John oftener than *me*," means "He visits John oftener than (he visits) *me*," in which *me* is correct because it is the object of the verb *visits.*

Agreement between Pronoun and Antecedent

45. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender—but not in case.

This rule means, for example, that if the antecedent is in the third person, singular number, and feminine gender, the pronoun which refers to it must also be in the third person, singular number, feminine gender: thus, "The *girl* said that *she* had been studying *her* lesson." Compare "The *boy* said that *he* had been studying *his* lesson" (third person, singular number, masculine gender).

Note the agreement in the following examples:

Antecedent	Pronouns
girl	she, her, hers, herself
boy	he, his, him, himself
tree	it, its, itself
girls, boys, trees	they, their, theirs, them, themselves
(I—the speaker)	I, my, mine, me, myself
(you—the person spoken to)	you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves

46. The case of a pronoun is not influenced by the case of the antecedent: it is determined solely by the use of the pronoun in the sentence (see Secs. 41–43).

47. The antecedent of a personal pronoun may be in a sentence preceding the one in which the pronoun occurs: "The *boys* will come tomorrow. Be sure to wait for *them*."

Note. The pronouns *I* and *you* are regularly used without an expressed antecedent. *I* can refer only to the speaker, and *you* refers to the person who is addressed; hence a definite antecedent is not needed in the sentence. In conversation the other personal pronouns may also be used without an expressed antecedent, when the person or thing referred to is designated by a gesture, a look, or some other means: "Look at *him*." "Give the book to *her*."

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

48. The Compound Personal Pronouns are made by adding *-self* or *-selves* to the proper forms of the simple pronouns.

In the first and second persons the additions are made to the possessive case: *myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves.* In the third person they are made to the objective case: *himself, herself, itself, themselves.* The forms *hisself* and *theirselves* are incorrect and illiterate.

Case

49. The case of the simple pronoun to which the suffix is added has nothing to do with the case of the completed compound pronoun.

Thus, although the suffix is added to the possessive case in the first and second persons, the resulting compound forms are never in the possessive case; they are either nominative or objective:

I *myself* will bring the package (nominative—in apposition with the subject *I*).
I deceived *myself* (objective—object of the verb).

Similarly, the third person forms, made from the objective case of the simple pronouns, may be either nominative or objective depending upon their use in the sentence:

He *himself* will go (nominative—in apposition with the subject).
She saw the manager *himself* (objective—in apposition with the object, *manager*).

Uses of Compound Personal Pronouns

50. The compound personal pronouns have two uses:

51. Reflexive. In this use the action performed by the

subject of the verb is *reflected* or comes back to the subject:

He struck *himself* (direct object).
They addressed the letters to *themselves* (object of a preposition).
She bought *herself* some flowers (indirect object).

When a reflexive pronoun is the object of a verb, we have the only exception to the rule in Sec. 20: the reflexive pronoun, although it is the object of the verb, represents the same person as the subject. We know that it is the object because it names the receiver of the action.

Note. In older English and in colloquial modern English the simple pronouns are also used reflexively: as, "Now I lay *me* down to sleep." "I made *me* a sled." "He bought *him* an overcoat." "I looked about *me*." (In the last example, *me* is the regular form.)

52. Emphatic. In this use the compound pronoun adds emphasis to a pronoun or noun already named:

I *myself* will go.
They gave it to Henry *himself*.

These emphatic pronouns are in apposition with the preceding noun or pronoun.

(a) A somewhat different emphatic use is shown in the following sentences:

This mistake, of *itself*, is not serious.
He doesn't act like *himself*.
They did the work by *themselves*.

EXERCISE 5

Give the person, number, gender, and case of each personal pronoun, and tell why each one is in that case:

1. It is I. 2. He gave them a fragment of a shell as a souvenir of their visit. 3. You will find it on my desk. 4. She brought me a book. 5. That was he whom they expected. 6. You will receive a letter from them today. 7. The price of it is plainly

marked. 8. It caused him many hours of anxiety. 9. He met her at a house party. 10. He having been selected for the position, the committee sent him notice to be ready for work at once. 11. She herself was responsible for the failure of her plans. 12. They voted themselves an increase in salary. 13. She brought her work to him for his approval. 14. Shall I get you your coat? 15. That was she herself standing at the door. 16. He bought some flowers for them. 17. He bought them some flowers. 18. She being unable to come, the meeting was postponed.

Note. Most of the pronouns in this exercise are without expressed antecedents. Each of these sentences is supposed to be a part of a paragraph, and where antecedents are required, they are to be thought of as being in a sentence preceding the one given here.

EXERCISE 6

Supply the correct personal pronoun in each of the blank spaces. It must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender. The case will depend upon how the pronoun is used in the sentence (as subject of a verb, object of a verb, etc.):

1. The boy has — paper ready for inspection. 2. The tree was shattered when the lightning struck —. 3. The soldiers acquitted — well in the battle. 4. These peaches are expensive, but — are all large and ripe. 5. The tiger is found only in the warmer climates. — is a carnivorous animal much feared by the natives. 6. John and I did not have as much success as — had anticipated. 7. Frank and Harry brought — own equipment with —. 8. Boys, did the owner say that — might have those apples? 9. The books were put into — places on the shelves as soon as — were taken from the box. 10. Each man moved — chair nearer the speaker. 11. The horse stood still until — owner came. 12. The father watched — son drive down the hill. 13. The traveler drew the package from — hiding place under the seat of the carriage in which — was sitting. 14. John has hurt — with — new knife.

EXERCISE 7

Supply the correct case form of the personal pronouns, and tell why it is correct:

1. The superintendent selected (we, us) boys for the work. 2. There has been trouble between (he, him) and (I, me) for some time. 3. That man is (he, him). 4. They sent for you and (I, me). 5. Surely, (we, us) older members should set a better example. 6. This decision affects neither my brother nor (I, me). 7. Neither John nor (he, him) will be elected. 8. Whatever happens, it is (she, her) who is responsible. 9. The president appointed three guides: Harry, Frank, and (I, me). 10. When you and (he, him) have done the work, you may go home. 11. After the guard and (I, me), walked the rest of the company. 12. I thought that this boy was (he, him). 13. Both you and (they, them) were mistaken. 14. The successful man is (he, him) who is interested in his work. 15. (He, him) the examiners rejected at once. 16. They found my brother and (I, me) at the station. 17. Just between you and (I, me), the plan was a failure. 18. If you were (he, him), which one would you prefer? 19. Everybody refused, except John and (I, me). 20. The party consisted of (we, us) four and a guide. 21. We were later than (they, them). 22. I like John as well as (she, her). 23. John is more generous than (I, me). 24. I would believe you more readily than (he, him). 25. He thinks that either you or (I, me) should go. 26. The guide related the story to John and (I, me). 27. This party was given for my sister and (I, me). 28. That was (they, them). 29. You are larger than (he, him). 30. Three members of the class—Frank Webster, William Smith, and (I, me)—were appointed to prepare the petition. 31. You, as well as (they, them), must not fail to come. 32. This must remain a secret between you and (I, me). 33. His brother is not as studious as (he, him). 34. They saw you and (I, me) going down to the pier. 35. If I were (she, her), I would refuse the offer. 36. Who is managing the affair? (I, me). 37. We knew that it must be (they, them). 38. Henry will work harder than (she, her). 39. He has made a formal charge against you and (I, me).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

53. A Relative Pronoun is both a connecting word and a reference word.

(1) As a **connective,** it introduces a clause—that is, a group of words having a subject and a verb—and connects that clause with the antecedent of the pronoun.

(2) As a **reference word,** a relative pronoun refers to and stands for its antecedent, and thus makes the repetition of the antecedent unnecessary. The relative will therefore either be the subject of the verb in the clause which it introduces, or have one of the other uses of a noun in the clause.

Thus, in "John found the book *which* was lost," the relative pronoun *which* connects the clause *which was lost* with the antecedent *book,* and is used instead of *book* as the subject of the verb *was lost.* In the sentence, "This is the man *whom* you saw," the relative pronoun *whom* is both a connective and the object of the verb *saw.*

54. Notice that a relative pronoun is always accompanied by its own clause which has a subject and verb separate from the main subject and verb of the sentence.

For example, the sentence, "I bought the horse *which* you sold," contains the main subject and verb, *I bought,* and also another subject and verb, *you sold,* following the relative pronoun *which.*

55. Classes of Relative Pronouns. There are two classes of relative pronouns: Simple and Compound.

(1) The **Simple Relative Pronouns** are *who, which,* and *that.*

(2) The **Compound Relative Pronouns** are *what,* and combinations made by adding *-ever* and *-soever* to *who, which,* and *what:* thus, *whoever, whosoever; whosever, whosesoever; whomever, whomsoever; whichever, whichso-*

ever; whatever, whatsoever. In older English *whoso* was also commonly used as a compound relative pronoun.

Note. What is usually classed among the simple relative pronouns. It has the form of a simple relative, but is like the compound relatives in that it does not have an expressed antecedent (see Sec. 67). Since the latter characteristic is more significant than the form, it seems advisable to include the word among the compound relatives.

SIMPLE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Antecedent

56. The three simple relative pronouns, *who, which,* and *that,* must have an antecedent definitely expressed in the sentence. This antecedent may be a noun or a pronoun:

The *prisoner who* escaped has been captured.
He who runs may read.
This man will accept *anything that* you give him.

Unlike personal pronouns (see Sec. 47), a relative pronoun is regularly in the same sentence with its antecedent, and the antecedent usually stands immediately before the pronoun.

Note. Which may refer to a whole statement as an antecedent: as, "*The night was dark,* which made the journey dangerous." This construction, though often condemned, is used by good writers. Sometimes, in order to avoid this form, a noun which sums up the whole statement is inserted as the antecedent: "The night was dark, a *condition* which made the journey dangerous."

Person, Number, and Gender

57. A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender. The form of the relative pronoun itself

does not change for these different properties, and they are determined by referring to the antecedent. It is necessary, however, for a writer to know the person and number of each relative in order that he may use the correct form of the verb with it. The verb will be the same as would be used with the antecedent.

Take, for example, the sentences, "I who *am* here will do the work," and "They who *are* here will do the work." In the first sentence the antecedent is *I*, which is in the first person, singular number; the relative therefore has the same person and number, and requires the verb *am*. In the second, the antecedent *they* is in the third person, plural number, and the pronoun therefore requires the verb *are*.

Gender does not affect the use of the pronoun or the form of the verb; hence it needs no further discussion. There is, however, a suggestion of gender in the principles governing the use of *who, which,* and *that* (see Sec. 65).

Case

58. The simple relative pronouns have the following case forms, which are the same for both singular and plural numbers:

Nominative	who	which		that
Possessive	whose	(of which)	(whose)	——
Objective	whom	which		that

Who is the only one of these pronouns which changes its form for the different cases.

Which has the same form for the nominative and objective cases. It has no regular form for the possessive case, the phrase *of which* being used instead. Sometimes, however, *whose,* the possessive case of *who,* is borrowed and employed as the corresponding form of *which.* Thus we may say either "A law the effects *of which* are so far-reaching

should not be repealed," or "A law *whose* effects are so far-reaching should not be repealed."

Note that the possessive case is used more freely with pronouns than with nouns in referring to inanimate objects (see Sec. 16).

That does not change its form and is not used in the possessive case.

59. The case of a relative pronoun does not depend upon the case of the antecedent, but is determined entirely by the use of the pronoun in the clause which it introduces:

I met him *who* was here.
I met him *whom* you sent.
I met him of *whom* you spoke.
I met him *whose* house was burned.

In all these sentences *him,* the antecedent of the pronouns, is in the objective case because it is the object of the verb *met.* In the first sentence, however, the relative pronoun *who* is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb *was* in its own clause. In the second and third sentences *whom* is in the objective case because it is the object of the verb *sent* and the object of the preposition *of,* respectively. In the fourth sentence *whose* is in the possessive case because it indicates possession of *house,* a word in its own clause.

60. The **Nominative Case** is used with the subject of a verb:

This is the student *who* won the prize.
They recovered the purse *which* was lost.
The crew were rescued from the ship *that* was torpedoed.

61. The **Objective Case** is used:

(1) With the direct object of a verb:

He is the opponent *whom* you defeated.
He mailed the letter *which* he had written.
A man is judged by the books *that* he reads.

(2) With the object of a preposition:

They met the agent from *whom* they bought the land.
This is the letter to *which* you refer.
He gets everything *that* he strives for.

62. The Possessive Case is used to denote possession:

The enemy surrounded the company *whose* captain had been killed.

Note. Compound Relative Pronouns may also be used as predicate nouns (pronouns) in the nominative case: *"Whoever* the man was, he deserved a reward."

Miscellaneous Features

63. Determining the Use of a Relative Pronoun. It will be noticed that the relative pronoun—whatever its use may be—generally stands at the beginning of the clause which it introduces. The normal order of any sentence or clause is subject + verb + object + various other elements. Therefore, if the relative pronoun is the subject of the verb, it stands in the regular position for the subject—at the beginning of the clause—and its use is readily seen.

If the relative pronoun is not the subject, the student will find it helpful, in determining the use of the pronoun, to rearrange the clause so that the subject comes first, then the verb, then the rest of the clause, with the relative pronoun in its natural place.

For example, take the sentence, "This is the man *whom* you sent": rearranged, the clause becomes "you sent *whom*," in which *whom* is easily recognized as the object of the verb. Again, "This is the book *that* you sent for": rearranged, the clause becomes "you sent for *that*," in which *that* is clearly the object of the preposition *for*.

64. Omission of the Relative Pronoun. Sometimes the

relative pronoun is not expressed; it is then said to be "understood":

This is the book ∧ you need (*that* is omitted before *you*).
He is a man ∧ we all admire (*whom* is omitted).

65. Distinction in the Use of *Who*, *Which*, and *That*.

(1) *Who* is used with an antecedent denoting a person:

The general *who* was victorious.
The lawyer *whom* the prisoner selected.

(2) *Which* is used with an antecedent denoting anything except a person:

The flower *which* is fragrant.
The rain *which* had fallen.
The horse *which* is lame.
The machine *which* is broken.

(3) *That* may be used with either persons or things:

The clerk *that* was late.
The water *that* flows by the mill.

See also Sec. 314.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

66. The Compound Relative Pronouns are *what* (see Sec. 55, note), *whoever, whosoever* (with their various case forms), *whichever, whichsoever, whatever,* and *whatsoever.*

Antecedent

67. The Compound Relative Pronouns ordinarily have no antecedent expressed in the sentence, but contain their own antecedents. Thus *what, whichever,* and *whatever* (with corresponding forms in *-soever*) are equivalent to *that which* (plural, *those which*): that is, they are equivalent to the

demonstrative pronoun *that* plus the relative pronoun *which*, the former being the antecedent of the relative. Similarly, *whoever* is equivalent to *he who* (plural, *they who*)—the personal pronoun *he* used as the antecedent, followed by the relative pronoun *who*.

For example, the sentence, "Tell me *what* you want," may be expressed as, "Tell me *that which* you want." The sentence, "Take *whichever* is the best," may become "Take *that which* is the best." "*Whoever* wishes may go," is equivalent to "*He who* wishes may go."

Note. In some sentences the antecedent is expressed. Thus, in "*Whoever* brings the book, *he* will be paid," *he* is the antecedent of *whoever*. In these instances the antecedent frequently follows the pronoun.

Case

68. *Whoever* and *whosoever* are the only compound relative pronouns that change their form for the different cases:

Nominative	whoever	whosoever
Possessive	whosever	whosesoever
Objective	whomever	whomsoever

What, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, and *whatsoever* have the same forms for the nominative and objective cases and have no possessive form.

69. The case of a compound relative pronoun, like that of a simple relative pronoun, is determined by the use of the pronoun in its own clause.

In the sentence, "Tell it to *whoever* will listen," *whoever* is in the nominative case because it is the subject of the verb *will listen*. It is not the object of the preposition *to*. The whole clause, *whoever will listen*, is the object of the preposition (see Sec. 227 (4)).

In the sentence, "Tell it to *whomever* you meet," *whomever* is

in the objective case because it is the object of the verb *meet*. It is not the object of the preposition *to*.

Finally, in "Give the book to *whomever* you wish," *whomever* is in the objective case because it is the object of a preposition *to* "understood," not the *to* expressed in the sentence: "Give the book to *whomever* you wish (to give the book *to*)."

These pronouns might also be parsed by breaking them up into their component parts (see Sec. 67) and treating each part separately. Thus the sentence, "Tell it to *whoever* will listen," would become "Tell it to *him who* (*those who*) will listen," in which *him* is the object of the preposition *to*, and *who* is the subject of the verb *will listen*. The method given first, however, is preferable, and is the one to be used.

EXERCISE 8

Supply the proper relative pronoun—*who, which,* or *that* (see Sec. 65):

1. This is the boy — brought the message. 2. J. F. Smith, — is the secretary of the society, read the minutes of the previous meeting. 3. I have read the book — you named. 4. Every horse — he sells is a thoroughbred. 5. I will buy the coat — is the cheapest. 6. The ship — sank first was torpedoed. 7. All members — were in favor of the amendment raised their hands. 8. His favorite novel was *Treasure Island,* — was written by Stevenson. 9. The captain — led the charge was a mere boy. 10. General Grant, — commanded the Union Army, afterward became president. 11. The dog — was injured has been shot.

EXERCISE 9

Point out the antecedent (when there is one), and give the person, number, and case of each relative pronoun; tell why each one is in that case (find the clause which the relative introduces, and see how it is used in that clause):

1. The man who succeeds in any work must be well trained. 2. The house which you just passed is said to be haunted. 3. He selected a present that he knew would be appreciated. 4. The clerk whom you hired has arrived. 5. A task which is pleasant

is soon finished. 6. Chaucer, whom we all admire, died in 1400. 7. The evil that men do lives after them. 8. George Washington, who was the first president of the United States, is buried at Mt. Vernon. 9. You know what the physician recommended. 10. Will you bring the box which you placed on the table? 11. The boy whom the examiners rejected has returned home. 12. Every person who read the article was convinced. 13. What the result will be, no one can foretell. 14. Your friend whom you were so much concerned about has been found. 15. We followed the driver who seemed to know the road best. 16. He soon learned what the difficulty was. 17. The officer whom you inquired for is not here. 18. The clerk to whom he addressed his letter was no longer in the employ of the company. 19. The town which he came from is in Wisconsin. 20. Whoever he is, he must be saved. 21. Whatever you do will be satisfactory to us. 22. This medal will be prized by whoever gets it. 23. I will buy from whoever quotes the best price. 24. The prize will be awarded to whomever you select. 25. I know the book you want. 26. This is the song he wrote. 27. The house which he bought is near the river. 28. These are the suggestions they offered for improving the work. 29. Whomever you send will be welcome. 30. We cut down the tree that the lightning shattered. 31. He who laughs last, laughs best. 32. He will give you whatever you want. 33. This is a model of the ship in which Columbus sailed. 34. The man they selected will be here tomorrow.

EXERCISE 10

Supply the correct form of the relative pronoun, and tell why each case form is correct (because it is the subject of a verb, object of a verb, etc.):

1. Here is the boy (who, whom) you sent for. 2. They found the boy (who, whom) was lost. 3. I could not punish the child (who, whom) I saw was a cripple. 4. The agent (who, whom) you bought the book from has been arrested. 5. The agent (who, whom) sold you the book has been arrested. 6. He engaged a guide (who, whom) he thought would be reliable. 7. The candidate (who, whom) the committee endorsed was defeated. 8. I know the man (who, whom) the governor has appointed. 9. This society helps them (who, whom) the investigators find are in

need. 10. The manager was a man (who, whom) all the employés disliked and (who, whom) was also not at all popular with the directors. 11. This is he (who, whom) every one is talking about. 12. At the office we found the messenger (who, whom) we had been expecting. 13. He (who, whom) ambition drives will travel far. 14. We forwarded the package to the dealer (who, whom) it was intended for. 15. They (who, whom) borrow trouble must pay a high rate of interest. 16. Every one (who, whom) he thinks is honest is greeted as a friend. 17. Those (who, whom), on account of old age, are compelled to stop work, will be pensioned. 18. Those (who, whom) the recruiting officers accept must report at once to the commanding officer. 19. Give it to (whoever, whomever) you find at the office. 20. This book is for (whoever, whomever) wants it. 21. (Whoever, whomever) comes will be welcome. 22. (Whoever, whomever) you decide upon will receive the commission. 23. The guilty man must be punished, (whoever, whomever) he may be. 24. They should give it to (whoever, whomever) they have reason to think deserves it. 25. Send for the clerk to (who, whom) the letter was addressed. 26. The books may be inspected by any one (who, whom) the committee selects. 27. The plan was rejected by those (who, whom) the originators thought would be favorable to it.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

70. The Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions.

They are three in number: *who, which,* and *what.*

71. Antecedent. An interrogative pronoun does not have an antecedent expressed in the sentence.

72. Case. *Who* has the following case forms:

Nominative	who
Possessive	whose
Objective	whom

Which and *what* have the same form for the nominative and objective cases, and have no possessive form.

73. The case of an interrogative pronoun, like that of other pronouns, is determined by its use in the sentence—as subject, object of a verb, etc.:

Who found the book? (nominative case—subject of the verb).
Who was John Smith? (nominative case—predicate pronoun).
Whose is that? (possessive case—denoting possession).
Whom do you want? (objective case—object of the verb).
Whom did you give it to? (objective case—object of the preposition).

74. Position in the Sentence. The interrogative pronoun is generally placed at the beginning of the sentence. When it is the object of a preposition, however, the preposition frequently precedes it: as, "From *whom* did you get the news?" (In conversation and informal writing a preposition is often placed at the end of a sentence.)

75. Interrogative Pronouns in Indirect Questions. Interrogative pronouns are used in indirect questions, as well as in direct questions: "Tell me *whom* you saw." "I asked him *what* he wanted." In an indirect question the thought of a direct question is expressed in a form somewhat different from that actually used by the speaker. It generally occurs after verbs like *ask, tell, wonder,* etc. Thus, "Tell me *whom* you saw" is the indirect form for the direct question, "*Whom* did you see?" The interrogation point is omitted after an indirect question.

76. Distinction between Relative and Interrogative Pronouns. *Who, which,* and *what* may be either relative or interrogative pronouns. In direct questions the interrogative pronoun is easily recognized. In indirect questions, also, the classification of *who* and *which* offers little difficulty, for as relatives these pronouns will have antecedents, as interrogatives they will not:

Give me the book *which* you selected (relative).
Tell me *which* you selected (interrogative).

Since *what* does not have an expressed antecedent either as a relative or as an interrogative, the classification will be determined by whether or not a question is implied:

I told you *what* he did (relative).
I asked you *what* he said (interrogative).

EXERCISE 11

Point out the interrogative pronouns, give the case of each, and tell why it is in that case (subject of a verb, etc.):

1. Who did the best work? 2. Whom did you meet at the store? 3. What is the answer to this problem? 4. Which have you decided to buy? 5. Whom are you going with? 6. Which is the best road to the next town? 7. What did you see at the exposition last week? 8. Who do you think will be elected next Tuesday? 9. Who is the man at the right of the speaker? 10. Whose is this coat lying on the floor? 11. Whom did they select for the leading part? 12. Whom were you waiting for when I saw you yesterday afternoon? 13. He asked which was the correct form to use in answering the letter. 14. Tell me whom you are expecting on the noon train. 15. They are inquiring who the guilty persons are. 16. What have you done?

EXERCISE 12

Supply the correct form for the interrogative pronouns, give the case of each, and tell why it is in that case:

1. (Who, whom) did you vote for? 2. (Who, whom) have you interviewed today? 3. (Who, whom) is the best correspondent in the office? 4. (Who, whom) do you think is the best correspondent in the office? 5. (Who, whom) did they discover in the cave? 6. (Who, whom) has the president appointed? 7. (Who, whom) did they think he was? 8. (Who, whom) will she go with? 9. (Who, whom) did he say the prize belonged to? 10. (Who, whom) will volunteer for this work? 11. (Who, whom) do you want? 12. (Who, whom) did you say brought the message? 13. (Who, whom) can identify the man who stole the ring? 14. (Who, whom) did this present come from? 15. They

asked (who, whom) would be held responsible for the mistake. 16. They inquired (who, whom) the visitor met. 17. He wondered (who, whom) he had been associated with. 18. They asked him (who, whom) his associates were.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

77. The Demonstrative Pronouns are *this* and *that,* with their plurals, *these* and *those.*

They are used to point out persons or things with especial emphasis or definiteness. (The word "demonstrative" comes from the same root as "demonstrate," meaning "to point out.")

78. Case. The demonstrative pronouns have the same form for the nominative and objective cases, and have no possessive form.

79. Antecedent. The antecedent of a demonstrative pronoun may be:

(1) A single noun: as, "I have been reading *Ivanhoe;* in my opinion *that* is the most interesting of Scott's novels."

(2) Two or more nouns, when the pronoun is plural: as, "I have been reading *Ivanhoe* and *Kenilworth;* in my opinion *these* are the most interesting of Scott's novels."

(3) A whole statement: as, "He is very proud, and *that* makes him unpopular." (This last construction should be avoided whenever there is any danger of ambiguity.)

80. The demonstrative pronoun frequently has no antecedent expressed. This is especially true in conversation, when the person or thing referred to can be indicated by a gesture or a glance. Thus a person seeing an accident might exclaim, "Look at *that!*" or, pointing to a book, might say, "Have you read *this?*"

81. *This* and *these* refer to things comparatively near; *that* and *those* to things comparatively remote: as, "Give

me some of *this* and a little of *that*." "I prefer *these* to *those*."

This and *that* refer to a singular antecedent; *these* and *those* to a plural antecedent.

82. Distinction between Relative and Demonstrative Pronouns. *That* may be a relative pronoun or a demonstrative pronoun. Compare the following sentences:

He paid for the coat *that* he ordered (relative).
He objected to *that* for political reasons (demonstrative).

The demonstrative *that* points out something definitely, much as if one were to point his finger at the object; the relative *that* has none of this definite force. Again, the relative *that*, as a rule, is placed immediately after the antecedent, and introduces a separate or new clause which modifies the antecedent. The demonstrative *that* may be at a considerable distance from its antecedent, even in a following sentence, and it does not introduce a separate clause.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

83. The Indefinite Pronouns are so called because they do not refer to definite persons and things.

Compare "*Somebody* will do the work" (indefinite) with "*I* will do the work" (definite).

The indefinite pronouns include a rather large number of words which indicate varying degrees of indefiniteness. Some of the more common are:

some, some one, somebody, something.
any, any one, anybody, anything.
everyone, everybody, everything.
one, none, nobody, nothing.
other, another, either, neither, all, many, few, each, both.

84. Case and Number. The nominative and objective case forms are the same.

Some of the indefinite pronouns have a possessive case: as, *one's, other's, another's,* and the compounds of *one* and *body* (*any one's, everybody's,* etc.).

One and *other* have plural forms: *ones* and *others:* as, "These are the *ones* I want." "The *others* will be here soon."

Note. Both the forms *anybody else's* and *anybody's else* are correct. The former is more natural and is preferable.

EXERCISE 13

Point out the demonstrative and indefinite pronouns, give the case of each, and tell why it is in that case; if there is an expressed antecedent for a demonstrative pronoun, name it:

1. This is the first name on the list. 2. They chose these after a thorough test. 3. The secretary sent a notice to everyone interested in the work. 4. Anything within reason will be done to satisfy the workmen. 5. The speaker pointed to one and then to another. 6. Each was ready to tell the other's faults. 7. I saw someone at the window. 8. The machine is defective, and that is the reason we returned it. 9. They gave everyone a week's vacation, and some received more. 10. We offered this to him because nobody could suggest a better present. 11. We found one on the table and the other hidden under a chair. 12. The soldiers could do nothing to help their wounded comrades. 13. Neither was successful at first, but that did not discourage them. 14. He received a message from somebody yesterday morning. 15. She bought these because they were recommended by everybody in her club. 16. All were accepted by the examiners, but only a few were given their commissions. 17. They will be satisfied with either of these. 18. Something must be done to keep at least one of the men at work constantly. 19. She selected the one lying on the counter, for that was cheaper than the others. 20. The roads in Illinois are not as good as those in Ohio.

EXERCISE 14

Point out the pronouns in the following sentences. Tell the class to which they belong (personal, relative, etc.); give

their antecedents, when expressed; give the person, number, gender, and case; and tell how each pronoun is used (as subject, object, etc.):

1. This is he whom we sent for. 2. You must tell me everything that you hear. 3. Fill the box with apples, and bring it to me. 4. John Smith, who injured himself yesterday, has partially recovered. 5. He will sell whatever he has. 6. We wrote the letters but the manager did not send them. 7. Father gave himself an overcoat for Christmas. 8. Someone should confer with the agents before they leave the city. 9. The teacher herself could not give the answer. 10. The manager sent us to the superintendent and he in turn referred us to his assistant. 11. Whom did the Smiths buy their piano from? 12. You will find the packages where the messenger left them. 13. The owner will give a reward to whoever finds the lost ring. 14. He has two canoes but this is the fastest one. 15. Mary has not heard the story; be sure to tell it to her. 16. That is the author himself. 17. The travelers found themselves in a trap from which they could not escape. 18. My friend bought the present for you and me when he was in the city. 19. That that is, is; that that is not, is not. 20. No one knows who the visitors were. 21. John's brother is older than he. 22. This work is intended for those who are in earnest. 23. We gave somebody the picture that you sent us. 24. The stranger told me what he wanted. 25. The students saw the error as soon as it was made. 26. Nobody can finish the work without help from you and her. 27. You must buy the goods from whoever has a supply. 28. Did he bring you the book that you asked for? 29. They will not give me the paper; they want to keep that for themselves. 30. This is a durable car, one which will last for years. 31. What does she want? 32. The principal has found no one whom he can rely upon. 33. This is the answer which you should have. 34. Bring us the latest stock reports.

CHAPTER III

ADJECTIVES

85. An Adjective is a word that describes a noun or modifies its meaning.

An adjective may:

(1) Describe a noun: as, *brave* soldier; *bright* light; *torn* coat.

(2) Denote which member or members of a class of objects are designated by the noun: as, *this* book; *some* people; *every* man; *two* apples; *second* day.

86. Any word that thus describes or modifies a noun is an adjective. Thus, we ordinarily think of *Sunday* as a noun, but in the sentence, "I bought a *Sunday* paper," it is an adjective, because it modifies the noun *paper*.

The possessive case of a noun is, from this point of view, an adjective: as, *John's* book, the *girl's* bonnet (see Sec. 28(2)).

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

87. Various pronouns are frequently used to modify nouns; they then become adjectives (adjective-equivalents), and are called Pronominal Adjectives.

The following sentences show different classes of pronouns used as Pronominal Adjectives:

Personal Pronouns: "That is *my* book." "He lost *his* money."

Relative Pronouns: "The man *whose* name was called has arrived." "The shoes were sold for four dollars, *which* price allows the dealer only a small profit." "*Whichever* plan you choose, it will fail."

Interrogative Pronouns: "*Which* book do you want?" "*What* coat will he wear?"

Demonstrative Pronouns: "*That* boy is late." "*Those* plums are ripe."

Indefinite Pronouns: "*Any* title will do." "Bring me *some* bread." "The *other* clerk is more accommodating."

88. To determine whether a pronoun is used as a pronominal adjective or as a real pronoun, it is necessary only to see whether it *modifies* a noun or is *used as* a noun:

Pronominal Adjective	Pronoun
That man will succeed.	*That* is a good man.
Which answer is right?	*Which* is right?
The *other* rope is stronger.	The *other* is stronger.
It is *my* book.	This book is *mine*.

The shorter possessive forms of personal pronouns (*my, our, your, her, their,* as distinguished from *mine, ours, yours, hers, theirs*) are always pronominal adjectives, for they are only used as modifiers of nouns (see Sec. 43).

THE ARTICLES

89. The adjectives *a, an,* and *the* are called Articles.

A and *an* are known as **Indefinite Articles**; *the* is called a **Definite Article.** The significance of these names is shown in the following sentences:

Bring me *a* book (any book).
Bring me *the* book (a particular book).

The indefinite articles indicate some member of a class of objects without designating which member is meant; the

definite article definitely specifies a particular member or members.

90. Uses of *A* and *An*. (1) *A* is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound; *an* before a word beginning with a vowel sound: *a* man; *an* apple.

The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u,* and sometimes *y*. In English, an initial *y* is almost always a consonant (*yam, yellow*); in the middle of a word it is frequently a vowel (*analysis*).

(2) The letter *u* sometimes has a vowel sound, and sometimes a consonant sound. Before a word beginning with the former, *an* is used: as, *an uncle;* before one beginning with the latter, *a* is used: as, *a uniform* (pronounced as if it were spelled *yuniform*), *a use.*

(3) Before a word beginning with *h, an* is used if the *h* is silent; *a* if the *h* is sounded: thus, *an honest* man; *a home; a high* cliff.

This rule, however, is not universally followed; some writers use *a* before a word beginning with *h* when the first syllable of the word is accented, and *an* when it is unaccented: thus, *a* his'-tory; *an* his-tor'-ical fact.

Either rule may be followed, but the one first given is less likely to be abused, and, in general, is preferable.

For a further discussion of the Articles, see Secs. 365 ff.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES

91. An adjective usually precedes the noun which it modifies:

He was a *brave* man.

Occasionally, for special emphasis, and in some special constructions discussed below, it is placed after the noun:

He was a man, *brave* and *strong.*

92. Predicate Adjective. An adjective modifying the subject is frequently placed after the verb, which connects it with the subject; it is called a Predicate Adjective:

The boy is *small* (small boy).
This work will be *easy* (easy work).
The cloud looks *black*.
He seems *happy*.
The prisoner became *sullen*.

The predicate adjective is used with forms of the verb *be*, and verbs like *seem, appear, become, turn*, etc. (Compare the Predicate Noun—see Sec. 19.)

Occasionally, for special emphasis, the Predicate Adjective is placed before the verb and the subject after the verb:

Dark was the night.

93. Objective Complement. An adjective placed after the direct object of a verb is sometimes used both to modify the object and also to complete the meaning of the verb. This adjective is called an Objective Complement:

The apples made the boy *sick*.
Acid will turn the milk *sour*.
She found the patient *dead*.

The apples didn't make the *boy*—they made the *boy sick*. Compare this construction with the use of a noun as an objective complement (see Sec. 24). The test for an objective complement—either an adjective or a noun—is to see whether *to be* can be inserted between the direct object and the complement without changing the meaning of the sentence. Compare:

We made the stick (to be) *straight* (objective complement).
We found a stick *straight* as the shaft of an arrow (an ordinary adjective modifying the object).

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

94. Adjectives have three degrees of Comparison—the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

(1) The **Positive Degree** is the simple form of the adjective used when no comparison is made between objects: *warm, large, beautiful.*

(2) The **Comparative Degree** is used in comparing one object with another one: that is, in comparing only two objects. The comparative degree is formed by adding *-er* to the simple form of the adjective, or by using *more* (sometimes *less*) before it: *warmer, larger, more beautiful* (*less beautiful*).

(3) The **Superlative Degree** is used in comparing three or more objects. The superlative degree is formed by adding *-est* to the simple form of the adjective, or by using *most* (sometimes *least*) before it: *warmest, largest, most beautiful* (*least beautiful*).

Thus we say:

My apple is *large* (positive degree).
My apple is *larger* than Harry's (comparative degree).
My apple is the *largest* of the three (superlative degree).

Sometimes the superlative degree indicates the greatest degree of a quality, without making a definite comparison of one object with other objects:

The audience listened with the *most intense* interest.
He was a *most loyal* servant.

95. No definite rule can be given for determining whether the forms in *-er, -est,* or those in *more, most,* are correct for any given adjective. The following statements, however, represent the general tendency:

With most adjectives of one syllable, and with some of two syllables, the suffixes *-er* and *-est* are used: *rich, richer, richest; thrifty, thriftier, thriftiest.*

With practically all adjectives of three or more syllables, and with some of two syllables, *more* and *most* are used: *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful; recent, more recent, most recent.*

With some adjectives, either *-er, -est,* or *more, most* may be used: *handsome, handsomer* or *more handsome, handsomest* or *most handsome.*

In case of doubt, the writer will have to be guided by the sound of the words, and choose the smoother combination.

96. Irregular Comparison. A few adjectives have irregular comparison:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
good	better	best
bad, ill	worse	worst
much, many	more	most
little	less, lesser	least
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
late	later, latter	latest, last
——	inner	inmost, innermost
——	outer	outmost, outermost
——	utter	utmost, uttermost
——	upper	uppermost
top	——	topmost
hind	hinder	hindmost, hindermost

EXERCISE 15

Point out the adjectives, tell what noun each modifies, and give the degree of comparison of each; point out the pronominal adjectives, predicate adjectives, and objective complements:

1. A large city is the best place for a variety of amusements. 2. The gnarled oak is almost dead. 3. Every student was asked to bring his text book to the next meeting of the class. 4. The company, tired and hungry after the long march, made its camp on the banks of a beautiful winding river. 5. The firm's Christ-

mas gift was most acceptable to the younger employés. 6. His latest book deals with the fascinating history of the secret diplomacy of the smaller European countries. 7. Mary's eyes are brown, but Harry's are blue. 8. The orator made his address brief and interesting. 9. This bridge appears safe, but it would be more substantial if a few braces were added. 10. We stopped at an out-of-the-way farmhouse for dinner. 11. After a late breakfast, we found the company ready for the journey. 12. Which city is the larger? 13. The patient looks well, but his condition is more serious than it appears to be. 14. The uppermost seats are reserved for the boys from the neighboring school. 15. The travelers found the people happy and prosperous. 16. In the valley lived a people happy and prosperous. 17. Strange are the uses of adversity! 18. The election returns have not been received from the outlying precincts. 19. Harry is a studious boy. 20. John is studious, but Frank is more energetic. 21. Unless the bullet is extracted, the wound will prove fatal. 22. The roar of the water made him deaf. 23. That incident is firmly fixed in my mind. 24. We have not decided upon what answer to make. 25. The jury declared the man guilty.

CHAPTER IV

VERBS

97. A Verb is a word that makes a statement about the subject.

In order to make a statement, two elements are necessary: something to talk about, and something to say about that thing. The first element is represented in a sentence by the noun or pronoun used as the subject; the second element is represented by the verb.

98. A verb may express:

(1) Action: as, "I *walk*." "He *ran*." "They *are playing* ball."

(2) State or condition: as, "He *remained* silent." "He *rests* every afternoon." "We *are* at home."

Some verbs may express action in one sentence and state or condition in another, depending upon their meaning:

He *turned* his head (action).
He *turned* pale (state or condition).

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

99. Verbs may be either Transitive or Intransitive.

(1) A **Transitive Verb** is one that takes an object:

We *saw* the *fire*.
The man *threw* the *ball*.
He *lifted* the *stone*.

(2) An **Intransitive Verb** is one that does not take an object:

The man *worked* rapidly.
He *is walking.*
Birds *fly.*

The word "transitive" has the same Latin root and prefix as "transit," and means "going over" or "passing over." Thus with a transitive verb the action performed by the subject may be said to pass over the verb to the object, which receives the action.

100. A verb that is transitive in some cases may be intransitive in others:

TRANSITIVE	INTRANSITIVE
They *broke* the glass.	The rope *broke.*
He *dropped* the pencil.	The pear *dropped* to the ground.

COPULATIVE VERBS

101. A Copulative Verb is a verb that connects the subject with a predicate noun or a predicate adjective:

John *is* a soldier.
The boy *will be* brave.

The word "copulative" is derived from the same root as the word "coupler" (for instance, a "coupler" between freight cars), and has the idea of a connecting link.

102. The most common copulative verb is *be* in its various forms: as, *am, is, was, were, will be, has been,* etc. Any verb, however, when used to connect the subject with a predicate noun or predicate adjective, is a copulative verb: as, *seem, look, become, appear,* etc.:

He *seems* honest.
They *looked* weary.
She *became* an artist.

It follows from what has been said that a copulative verb never has an object.

The verb *be* is not always a copulative verb, for it may be an ordinary intransitive verb denoting *existence:* as, "God *is.*" "The boy *was* at home." It is a copulative verb only when it is used as a connective in the manner described above.

AUXILIARY VERBS

103. An Auxiliary Verb is a verb which helps to make some form of another verb. (The word "auxiliary" means "helping.")

Thus, in *is going* the auxiliary verb *is* helps to make a form of the verb *go;* in *have found* and *will sing* the auxiliary verbs *have* and *will* help to make forms of *find* and *sing,* respectively.

104. The principal auxiliary verbs are *be, have, may, can, must, will, shall,* and *do,* together with their different forms *is, was, had, might, could, would, should, did,* etc.

Be, have, will, and *do* are not always auxiliary verbs; they may be complete verbs: as, "He *is* here." "I *have* the book." "I *will* it to be so." "I *do* the hard part of the work."

In making some forms of a verb two or more auxiliary verbs may be used: "He *has been* seen." "They *will have been* sent." "You *should have been* sleeping."

105. Sometimes intervening words are placed between the auxiliary verb and the part of the verb to which it belongs. In such cases the student, when naming the verb in the sentence, should be careful to include the separated auxiliary: as, "He *had* already *gone* home."

EXERCISE 16

Point out the transitive and intransitive verbs, copulative verbs, and auxiliary verbs:

1. The spectators thoroughly enjoyed the game. 2. The audience laughed heartily at the anecdote. 3. This ship was an Amer-

ican transport on its way to France. 4. Did you bring your umbrella this morning? 5. After our vacation the work seemed dull and monotonous. 6. This work requires the closest attention on the part of the employés. 7. The company had already been waiting for more than an hour. 8. The senator has been chairman of the committee. 9. Early in the morning the captain received a message from headquarters. 10. The advisory board had carefully prepared the plans. 11. The annihilation of the enemy's forces is the purpose of this recent campaign. 12. This industry has an important part in the work of reconstruction. 13. As a result of this victory the army had at last succeeded in regaining a large part of the conquered territory. 14. He will soon become a leader of the Democratic party of the state. 15. Surely he can at least show a little interest in the result of the experiment. 16. Will either you or your father be going to town soon? 17. They did the work as well as we could expect. 18. Beside his brother, John appears cold and indifferent. 19. At all events we must return the goods to the owner. 20. The officials had been expecting this failure for some time. 21. The children have already gone to school. 22. Father will be at home this evening. 23. Mr. Allen should be the next president of the company. 24. The guide will be waiting for you at the lake. 25. This company is constantly seeking new markets for its products. 26. He had, at the last reports, an income of fifty thousand dollars. 27. This organization had, according to the government officials, incited revolt among the natives. 28. In the distance, we could see the summit of Mt. Mitchell. 29. The book will contain a number of illustrations. 30. He thoroughly believed in the future of the city.

PERSON AND NUMBER

106. A verb must agree with its subject in Person and Number:

I *am* in the city.
He *is* in the city.
We *are* in the city.

In the first sentence, the subject *I* is in the first person, singular number; hence the verb *am,* which is the form of the verb *be* in the first person, singular number, is used (see

the table in Sec. 107). In the second sentence, the verb *is* agrees with the subject *he:* they are both in the third person, singular number. In the third example, the verb is *are,* agreeing with the subject *we*—first person, plural number.

Changes in Form to Indicate Person and Number

107. The Verb *Be.* Throughout the discussion of verbs it will be noticed that the verb *be* is frequently referred to as having especially irregular forms and offering the most exceptions to general statements. The reason for this irregularity is that the modern forms of this verb are made up of the remains of three originally separate verbs.

In the present tense the verb *be* has distinct forms (*am* and *is*) for the first and third persons, respectively, in the singular number; the other forms in this tense are the same (*are*) for all persons. (For the meaning of *present tense* and *past tense,* see Sec. 114.)

The past tense has *was* in the first and third persons, singular number, and *were* in the other forms.

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. You are.	2. You are.
3. He (she, it) is.	3. They are.

PAST TENSE

1. I was.	1. We were.
2. You were.	2. You were.
3. He (she, it) was.	3. They were.

108. The Verb *Have.* In the present tense the verb *have* takes the form *has* in the third person, singular number, and *have* in all the other forms:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I have.	1. We have.
2. You have.	2. You have.
3. He (she, it) has.	3. They have.

109. All Other Verbs. In the present tense *all other verbs* add *-s* in the third person, singular number:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I work.	1. We work.
2. You work.	2. You work.
3. He (she, it) works.	3. They work.

110. These are the only changes made in any verb to indicate person and number. In the other forms of verbs, the person and number are determined by referring to the subject. It is understood, of course, that in certain forms of all verbs where *be* and *have* are used as auxiliary verbs—for example, I *am walking,* he *is walking;* I *have heard,* he *has heard*—the proper forms of *be* and *have,* as given above in the tables, will be employed.

111. The rule for person and number in verbs is therefore simple: In all verbs excepting *be* and *have* the only change in form to indicate person and number is made by adding *-s* in the third person, singular number, present tense.

Note. In the preceding discussion no account has been taken of the forms of the verb used with the second person, singular number pronoun *thou,* in the "solemn" style (see Sec. 38). This pronoun takes special forms of the verbs: thou *art,* thou *wast,* thou *hast been,* thou *walkest,* etc. These are now restricted almost entirely to prayer and poetry.

EXERCISE 17

Give the person and number of each verb in Exercise 18.

TENSE

112. Tense is that property of a verb which indicates the time when an action takes place.

The word "tense" is derived from a French word meaning "time."

113. There are six tenses—three simple and three perfect tenses:

Simple Tenses	Perfect Tenses
Present	Present Perfect
Past	Past Perfect
Future	Future Perfect

Simple Tenses

114. (1) The **Present Tense** indicates that an action is going on at the present time: as, "He *hears* the bell now."

(2) The **Past Tense** indicates that an action took place in past time: as, "He *heard* the bell yesterday."

(3) The **Future Tense** indicates that an action will take place in future time: as, "He *will hear* the bell tomorrow."

Perfect Tenses

115. The three simple tenses obviously cover all possible time: time *now,* time *gone by,* and time *to come;* and the perfect tenses, therefore, cannot indicate any time that is not included in the simple tenses. The perfect tenses are regularly used to call attention to the completion of an action; they set up a certain point of time and indicate that an action was completed before or by that time.

(1) The **Present Perfect Tense** indicates that an action has been completed before the present time: as "He *has finished* the work." In this tense the completion of the action may have occurred a minute, or a year, or a century before the present.

(2) The **Past Perfect Tense** indicates that an action was completed before a certain time in the past: as, "He *had finished* the work before nine o'clock yesterday morning." A definite time in the past is named—"nine o'clock yesterday morning"—and the action is said to have been completed before that time.

(3) The **Future Perfect Tense** indicates that an action will be completed before a certain time in the future: as, "He *will have finished* the work by next Saturday." In this sentence *Saturday* is set up as the definite point of time in the future, and the statement is made that the action will be completed before that time.

In Modern English the future perfect tense has been largely replaced by the simple future tense. Ordinarily a person would say, "He *will finish* the work by next Saturday," instead of "He *will have finished.*"

Forms of the Different Tenses

116. The statements just given represent the general use of the six tenses, but in practice there are variations (see Secs. 385 ff). For the present it is sufficient to recognize the *forms* of the different tenses:

(1) The present and past tenses are easily recognized: I *walk*, I *walked;* I *see*, I *saw.*

(2) Any verb form which contains *shall* or *will* (without *have*) as the auxiliary verb is in the future tense: I *shall walk;* he *will walk;* they *will be walking.*

(3) Any verb form which contains *have* or *has* as the auxiliary verb is in the present perfect tense: I *have walked;* he *has walked.*

Occasionally, with some verbs expressing motion, a form of *be* is used instead of *have* as the auxiliary: He *is gone* (*has gone*); they *are come* (*have come*).

(4) Any verb form which contains *had* as the auxiliary verb is in the past perfect tense: I *had walked;* you *had walked.*

(5) Any verb form which contains *shall have* or *will have* as the auxiliary verb is in the future perfect tense: We *shall have walked;* they *will have walked.*

117. Signs of the Tenses. These auxiliary verbs may be called the signs of the different tenses:

Tense	Sign
Present	———
Past	———
Future	will or shall
Present Perfect	have or has
Past Perfect	had
Future Perfect	will have or shall have

This table holds good for every verb.

118. To make any tense form for any given verb, the student needs only to take the sign for that tense and add the proper form of the given verb—the form that in speaking he would use with that sign:

Will and *shall* are added to the simple form of the verb: *will go, shall walk.*

The signs of the perfect tenses are added to the past participle of the verb (see Sec. 162): *have gone, had walked, will have been.*

119. Table of Forms. The following table gives the forms for the six tenses of the verbs *be, have,* and *work* in the different persons and numbers:

The Verb *Be*

Present Tense

Singular	Plural
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. You are.	2. You are.
3. He is.	3. They are.

Past Tense

1. I was.	1. We were.
2. You were.	2. You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall be.	1. We shall be.
2. You will be.	2. You will be.
3. He will be.	3. They will be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. You have been.	2. You have been.
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE

1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. You had been.	2. You had been.
3. He had been.	3. They had been.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

1. I shall have been.	1. We shall have been.
2. You will have been.	2. You will have been.
3. He will have been.	3. They will have been.

The Verb *Have*

PRESENT TENSE

1. I have.	1. We have.
2. You have.	2. You have.
3. He has.	3. They have.

PAST TENSE

1. I had.	1. We had.
2. You had.	2. You had.
3. He had.	3. They had.

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall have.	1. We shall have.
2. You will have.	2. You will have.
3. He will have.	3. They will have.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

1. I have had.	1. We have had.
2. You have had.	2. You have had.
3. He has had.	3. They have had.

PAST PERFECT TENSE

1. I had had.	1. We had had.
2. You had had.	2. You had had.
3. He had had.	3. They had had.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

1. I shall have had.	1. We shall have had.
2. You will have had.	2. You will have had.
3. He will have had.	3. They will have had.

The Verb *Work*

PRESENT TENSE

1. I work.	1. We work.
2. You work.	2. You work.
3. He works.	3. They work.

PAST TENSE

1. I worked.	1. We worked.
2. You worked.	2. You worked.
3. He worked.	3. They worked.

FUTURE TENSE

1. I shall work.	1. We shall work.
2. You will work.	2. You will work.
3. He will work.	3. They will work.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

1. I have worked.	1. We have worked.
2. You have worked.	2. You have worked.
3. He has worked.	3. They have worked.

PAST PERFECT TENSE

1. I had worked.	1. We had worked.
2. You had worked.	2. You had worked.
3. He had worked.	3. They had worked.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

1. I shall have worked.	1. We shall have worked.
2. You will have worked.	2. You will have worked.
3. He will have worked.	3. They will have worked.

Simple, Progressive, and Emphatic Tense Forms

120. Thus far we have considered only the commonest forms of the verb in the different tenses; there are, however, three forms for expressing the various tense relations: the Simple, Progressive, and Emphatic.

(1) The **Simple** forms are those just given in the tables: I *think,* I *thought,* I *shall think,* etc.

(2) The **Progressive** forms represent the action as going on, as being in progress, at the time indicated: I *am thinking,* I *was thinking,* I *shall be thinking,* etc.

In general, this form pictures the action more vividly than does the simple one. It consists of a form of the verb *be* used as an auxiliary verb, followed by the present participle of the main verb. (The present participle is the form of the verb ending with the suffix *-ing.*)

(3) The **Emphatic** forms are used to give emphasis to a statement: I *do think,* I *did think.*

Thus in answer to the question, "Why don't you think about what you are doing?" one might say, "I *think* about it," or "I *do think* about it." The latter is obviously the more emphatic answer. The emphatic form is made with the auxiliary verb *do* or *did.*

121. Table of Forms. The following table illustrates the three forms in the present and past tenses (the plural number is not included):

Simple	*Progressive*	*Emphatic*
	Present Tense	
1. I walk.	1. I am walking.	1. I do walk.
2. You walk.	2. You are walking.	2. You do walk.
3. He walks.	3. He is walking.	3. He does walk.
	Past Tense	
1. I walked.	1. I was walking.	1. I did walk.
2. You walked.	2. You were walking.	2. You did walk.
3. He walked.	3. He was walking.	3. He did walk.

(a) The future tense and the perfect tenses have no emphatic form:

Simple	*Progressive*
FUTURE TENSE	
1. I shall walk.	1. I shall be walking.
2. You will walk.	2. You will be walking.
3. He will walk.	3. He will be walking.
PRESENT PERFECT TENSE	
1. I have walked.	1. I have been walking.
2. You have walked.	2. You have been walking.
3. He has walked.	3. He has been walking.
PAST PERFECT TENSE	
1. I had walked.	1. I had been walking.
2. You had walked.	2. You had been walking.
3. He had walked.	3. He had been walking.
FUTURE PERFECT TENSE	
1. I shall have walked.	1. I shall have been walking.
2. You will have walked.	2. You will have been walking.
3. He will have walked.	3. He will have been walking.

Questions and Negative Statements

122. In questions and negative statements, the auxiliaries *do* and *did* are not devices for expressing emphasis. They are regularly supplied in these constructions when the corresponding affirmative statement is without an auxiliary:

I *like* the place (affirmative).
Do you *like* the place? (question).
I *do* not *like* the place (negative).

123. When there is an auxiliary in the affirmative statement, *do* or *did* is not required in questions and negative assertions, but the order or arrangement of the sentence is changed:

He *will* come.
Will he come?
He *will* not *come*.

124. *Is, am, was,* and *were* do not require an auxiliary:

Is she at home?
They *were* not present.

EXERCISE 18

Give the tenses of the verbs, and point out the progressive and emphatic forms:

1. The carpenter had finished the work before I arrived. 2. The consignment of goods will be at the warehouse tomorrow. 3. The attack began at dawn and lasted for an hour. 4. We were anticipating a pleasant day in the country. 5. This incident has already caused a great deal of bitter feeling. 6. They have not heard the report of the last engagement. 7. He feels that his work did not receive the attention that it deserved. 8. His brother will report for work on Monday. 9. Had they found the money when you left the store? 10. The book is lying on the table in the outer office. 11. This firm has had a number of financial reverses during the past year. 12. Bismarck was then the active leader in Prussian affairs. 13. His friends have been congratulating him on his good fortune. 14. This group of politicians has for many years defied public opinion. 15. Will you come to the next meeting of the society? 16. The architects are now working on the plans for the new court house. 17. We expected a visit from him when he was in the city. 18. The writer evidently does not believe in the theory of evolution. 19. He had a wonderful collection of old books and prints which he had been collecting for many years. 20. I am not going down town until the manager sends for me. 21. They will be sorry for their neglect. 22. Does this train stop at State Street? 23. He goes tomorrow at noon. 24. We heard the explosion while we were standing at the window. 25. I do want a few hours of recreation. 26. He has at last obtained the sanction of the president for the expenditure of the money. 27. They walked to the station every morning. 28. They did their work conscientiously. 29. As we have since discovered, the witness did know who was responsible for the accident. 30. Has any person in the room read this book? 31. You have sufficient money for current expenses. 32. I had suspected that you were working on this plan.

MOOD

125. Mood is that property of a verb which indicates the manner in which a statement is made.

The verb has three Moods: Indicative, Imperative, and Subjunctive.

126. The **Indicative Mood** is primarily used in making a positive statement of fact:

I *came* at three o'clock.
The house *is painted* white.
They *are* loyal friends.

A verb in a direct question is also considered to be in the Indicative Mood, the reason being that the question anticipates a positive statement in answer:

Will you *go* with me?
Has the speaker *arrived?*

127. The **Imperative Mood** expresses a command or an entreaty:

Bring me the book.
Be sure to come early.

128. The **Subjunctive Mood** makes a conditional statement, expresses a wish, or indicates doubt and uncertainty:

If he *were* at home, he would be contented.
If that *be* the case, we must be careful.
Oh, that John *were* here.
I wish that he *were* stronger.

Forms in the Different Moods

129. The **Indicative Mood** is used much more frequently than the others. The forms which we have studied under the subject of Tenses are all in the indicative mood (see Sec. 119).

130. The **Imperative Mood** takes the simplest form of the

verb: as, *be* (Be still); *come* (Come at once); *think* (Think quickly).

(a) To make an emphatic command or a negative command, *do* is combined with the regular imperative form:

Do take care of yourself.
Do not *come* until tomorrow.

Note. The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is not usually expressed. A command is always addressed *to* a person, and the subject is therefore always *you*. Sometimes for special emphasis the subject is expressed: thus, "*You* come here" is more emphatic than the simple "Come here."

131. The **Subjunctive Mood** has the same forms as the indicative mood as given in the tables (see Sec. 119), with the following exceptions:

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The Verb *Be*

SINGULAR	PLURAL
PRESENT TENSE	
1. (If) I be.	1. (If) we be.
2. (If) you be.	2. (If) you be.
3. (If) he be.	3. (If) they be.
PAST TENSE	
1. (If) I were.	1. (If) we were.
2. (If) you were.	2. (If) you were.
3. (If) he were.	3. (If) they were.

The Verb *Have*

PRESENT TENSE	
1. (If) I have.	1. (If) we have.
2. (If) you have.	2. (If) you have.
3. (If) he have.	3. (If) they have.

All Other Verbs

PRESENT TENSE

1. (If) I work.	1. (If) we work.
2. (If) you work.	2. (If) you work.
3. (If) he work.	3. (If) they work.

(*If* is not a part of the verb, but it is used in the foregoing tables because a group of words in which the subjunctive mood is employed, is most frequently introduced by *if*.)

132. Thus in the subjunctive mood the verb *be* has the form *be* throughout the different persons in both numbers of the present tense, and *were* throughout the past tense. Notice that *were* occurs in both the singular and the plural number.

Compare these forms with those of the indicative mood: I *am*, you *are*, he *is*, we *are*, you *are*, they *are* (present); I *was*, you *were*, he *was*, we *were*, you *were*, they *were* (past).

133. The verb *have* has only one form in the subjunctive mood different from the indicative: *have* instead of *has* in the third person, singular number, present tense—"If he *have* the time" (subjunctive). "He *has* the time" (indicative).

134. All other verbs show only one change: the *-s* which is the ending of the third person, singular number, present tense, in the indicative mood, is omitted in the subjunctive: "(If) he *work*" (subjunctive); "He *works*" (indicative).

In all verbs the present perfect tense—which is made by using some form of the verb *have* as an auxiliary verb—has a theoretical form with *have* instead of *has* in the third person, singular number, subjunctive mood: "(If) he *have* gone." In practice, however, this rarely occurs.

Uses of the Subjunctive Mood

135. In earlier English the subjunctive mood was extensively used, and it is still frequently found in poetry. In

ordinary prose it has been largely replaced by the indicative forms or by verb-phrases made with modal auxiliaries (see Sec. 443). The most common uses of the subjunctive in modern prose are:

136. Present Tense. The present tense forms of the subjunctive mood may be used:

(1) In expressing a condition that may or may not be true to fact (see Sec. 137, *note*):

If that *be* true, we must go at once.
If this plan *fail*, there is no recourse.
We shall go tomorrow, *rain* or *shine*.

Note 1. Rain or shine is an elliptical construction, equivalent to "if it *rain* or if it *shine*."

Note 2. In these conditional statements many writers prefer the indicative form *is* to the subjunctive form *be*, and most writers would use *fails* (indicative) instead of *fail* (subjunctive). Both usages are correct.

(2) In expressing a concession, after *though* or *although* (see Sec. 239):

Even though that *be* the case, I will not go.

Note. The indicative mood (*is*) may also be used in this construction.

(3) In certain parliamentary expressions:

I move that the nominations *be* closed.
He moved that the report *be* accepted.

(4) After verbs or adjectives expressing command, necessity, and the like:

The tenant demands that the house *be* painted.
The law requires that he *examine* the books monthly (not *examines*).
The committee ordered that the case *be* continued.
It is necessary that the papers *be* destroyed.

Note. Instead of the subjunctive forms a verb-phrase made with *shall* or *should* may be used: "The tenant demands that

the house *shall be* painted." "The committee ordered that the case *should be* continued."

137. Past Tense. The past tense of the subjunctive mood should be used:

(1) In all clauses expressing a present condition which is *contrary to fact* (see Sec. 138):

If he *were* here, he would consent (not *was*).
If I *were* in his place, I should refuse (not *was*).
Suppose she *were* at home—what could she do? (not *was*).
If he *knew* the answer, he would tell you.

(2) In wishes:

I wish that he *were* stronger (not *was*).
I wish that I *were* not so late (not *was*).

(3) After *as if* and *as though:*

He looks as if he *were* very old (not *was*).
She talked as though she *were* amused (not *was*).

Note. In group (1) above, the conditions are contrary to fact because, in the first sentence, for example, he is not here; in the second, I am not in his place, etc. Compare these with "If he *was* at home, he must have been asleep when I called." This is not a condition contrary to fact, for he may, or may not, have been at home. Note that the indicative form *was* is used here instead of the subjunctive *were* (see Sec. 141, *note*).

138. The past tense in the subjunctive mood never represents a condition belonging to actual past time; it regularly indicates present time. Thus the first sentence under (1) above, means that he is not here *now;* the last sentence means that he does not know the answer *now* (see also Sec. 403). A condition which is in past time and is contrary to fact requires a verb in the past perfect tense, subjunctive mood (see Sec. 141).

139. In the first and third persons, singular number, of the past tense, the verb *be* has *were* in the subjunctive mood, *was* in the indicative mood (see Sec. 132). The other past tense

forms of *be* and all the past tense forms of other verbs are identical in form for the two moods, and hence the reader must determine the mood from the context. If the conditional statement is in present time and is contrary to fact, the verb is in the subjunctive mood. If the conditional statement is in past time and is *not* contrary to fact, the verb is in the indicative mood:

If he *knew* the reason, he would tell me (subjunctive).
If he *knew* the reason, he did not tell me (indicative).

140. It follows from what has been said, that the only mistake which is likely to be made in the actual use of the past tense, subjunctive mood, is to confuse the indicative *was* and the subjunctive *were*. This is the only instance in which the forms are different for the two moods.

141. Past Perfect Tense. A condition *contrary to fact in past time* is expressed by the past perfect tense, subjunctive mood:

If I had been guilty, I would have confessed.
If he *had gone,* he would have enjoyed the play.

Sentences of this sort, however, offer no opportunity for error, since the subjunctive and indicative forms of the past perfect tense are identical in *all* verbs.

Note. For conditions in past time which are *not* contrary to fact (that is, those which may or may not be true to fact) the *indicative mood* is used:

If he *was* here when we came, why did he refuse to see us? (perhaps he was here, perhaps not).
If he *was* responsible for the accident, he should have paid the damages.
If she *felt* the disgrace, she showed no signs of regret.
If he *has finished* the work, he will be here soon.

142. Summary. Modern usage prefers the indicative mood to the subjunctive everywhere except (a) in conditions contrary to fact, in wishes, and after *as if* and *as though* (Sec.

137); (b) in certain parliamentary expressions (Sec. 136 (3)). In these the subjunctive mood is always used. The practical rule is this: In the constructions under (a) do not use *was* for *were;* in (b) use *be.*

Nevertheless, the writer may also, if he wishes, use the subjunctive mood in present conditions not contrary to fact, in concessions, and after words expressing command, etc. (Sec. 136 (1), (2), (4)).

MODAL AUXILIARIES

143. Various kinds of relations, such as permission, ability, possibility, obligation, necessity, and the like, are expressed by means of the Modal Auxiliaries.

144. The Modal Auxiliaries are *may, can, must, might, could, would,* and *should.* The following sentences show their use:

You *may* go home.
I *can* find the house.
He *must* come at once.
They *might* be at home.
We *could* come at six o'clock.
He *would* go without his overcoat.
You *should* work the problems without help.

Verb-Phrases Made with the Modal Auxiliaries

145. Verb-phrases made with the help of the Modal Auxiliaries have the following forms (there are no future tenses):

ACTIVE VOICE

PRESENT TENSE

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I may see.	1. We may see.
2. You may see.	2. You may see.
3. He may see.	3. They may see.

PAST TENSE

1. I might see.	1. We might see.
2. You might see.	2. You might see.
3. He might see.	3. They might see.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

1. I may have seen, etc.	1. We may have seen, etc.

PAST PERFECT TENSE

1. I might have seen, etc.	1. We might have seen, etc.

PASSIVE VOICE

Present Tense: I may be seen, etc.
Past Tense: I might be seen, etc.
Present Perfect Tense: I may have been seen, etc.
Past Perfect Tense: I might have been seen, etc.

For a discussion of the passive voice, see Secs. 148–151.

It will be noticed that *might* and *could* are the past tense forms for *may* and *can*. *Should* and *would* are the past tenses of *shall* and *will*, but the latter (*shall* and *will*) are not included in the Modal Auxiliaries.

146. Progressive Forms. There are also progressive forms for the different tenses in the active voice: I *may be seeing*, etc.; I *might be seeing*, etc.; I *may have been seeing*, etc.; I *might have been seeing*, etc.

For a further discussion of Modal Auxiliaries, see Secs. 438 ff.

EXERCISE 19

Give the mood of each verb in the following sentences; when there is a conditional statement, tell why the indicative or the subjunctive is employed:

1. Try to make a creditable record in your classes. 2. Will you finish the work today? 3. The suit will be ready for delivery on Saturday. 4. Hold yourself in readiness to report for duty at a moment's notice. 5. If John were not so slow, we

could leave at once. 6. Your answer to the problem is correct. 7. If he be the man I think he is, he will be glad to make the proper adjustment. 8. Can you find your way without a guide? 9. Work hard, and hope for the best. 10. He would be eligible for membership if he were a year older. 11. If he is entitled to a reward, he should receive it at once. 12. Heaven help me to do my duty! 13. If they were honest, they would not fear the investigation. 14. If these reports be true, then you must admit that your plan is impractical. 15. He could have seen the parade if he had come sooner. 16. Don't you wish that he were taller? 17. You may go if it is not too cold. 18. If he was in the next room, he certainly heard the conversation. 19. They will be there if they are invited. 20. It is essential that all drawings be approved by the instructor. 21. I wish that this were Saturday. 22. The answers were the same in both cases. 23. The guide directed that all the baggage be packed at once. 24. If she heard me, she made no reply. 25. If she heard me, she would reply.

EXERCISE 20

Give the difference in meaning and the time indicated in the following sentences. Tell which sentences contain conditions contrary to fact:

1. If he is at home, he will give you the money. 2. If he were at home, he would give you the money. 3. If he was at home, he surely heard us when we rang the bell. 4. If he had been at home, he would have welcomed you gladly. 5. If he was sick, he should have called a physician. 6. If he were sick, he would call a physician. 7. If he had been sick, he would have called a physician. 8. If he is sick, he will call a physician. 9. If his report be true, the army is in danger. 10. If his report is true, the army is in danger. 11. If his report were true, the army would be in danger. 12. If his report had been true, the army would have been in danger.

EXERCISE 21

Supply the proper form of the verb *be*—indicative or subjunctive—and tell why that form is correct:

1. If it —— earlier in the day, they would have time to finish the work. 2. If the book —— on the table, bring it to me. 3. If Mr. Smith —— elected, he will be loyal to his constituents. 4. If he —— not blind, he could earn a large salary. 5. I told you that if Harry —— more careful he would not make so many mistakes. 6. If it —— possible, I wish that you would come. 7. I wish that the school —— not so far away. 8. If John —— not at the meeting, he surely was not notified in time to go. 9. If she —— better prepared, she would have no difficulty in passing the examination. 10. If that —— the case, he would have no cause for complaint. 11. If that —— the case, we must follow the instructions carefully. 12. If he —— my friend, I would have excused him. 13. If the secretary —— not present, you must read the minutes. 14. If the work —— pleasant, the time will pass quickly. 15. If he —— warned, the accident would not have occurred. 16. If he —— satisfied with the report, he should have notified me. 17. If he —— satisfied with his salary, he would do better work. 18. It was necessary that the work —— finished early. 19. The man acted as if he —— ashamed. 20. I wish that my friend —— larger.

(a) Write four original sentences using *were* in conditional statements.

(b) Write the same number of sentences for each of the following—*is, be, had been*—in conditional statements.

VOICE

147. Voice is that property of a verb which indicates whether the subject of the verb is performing or receiving an action.

148. There are two voices: Active and Passive.

(1) A verb in the **Active Voice** represents the subject as acting:

He *wrote* the letter.
They *are working* in the city.
We *have seen* the president.

(2) A verb in the **Passive Voice** represents the subject as receiving the action:

The soldier *was wounded* by a shell.
We *were impressed* by the beauty of the performance.

149. When a transitive verb is in the active voice, the *direct object* names the receiver of the action (see Sec. 20); when it is in the passive voice, the *subject* names the receiver. Hence any sentence containing a transitive verb in the active voice can be changed into one having a verb in the passive voice by using the object of the original verb as the subject of the new verb:

For instance, the sentence "The boy lost a *dollar*" (active) would become "A *dollar* was lost by the boy" (passive). In this case, the original subject usually becomes the object of a preposition: thus in the example just given, the original subject, *boy*, is the object of the preposition *by* in the new sentence.

(a) When the original sentence contains a noun used as an objective complement this noun is generally retained in the new sentence as a predicate noun:

The society elected Harry *president* (active).
Harry was elected *president* by the society (passive).

(b) When the active verb has both a direct and an indirect object, either of these may become the subject of the verb in the passive voice and the other remains as a *Retained Object* (see Sec. 302):

The committee gave *John* a prize (active).
John was given a *prize* by the committee (passive).
A *prize* was given *John* by the committee (passive).

(c) Occasionally the object of a preposition occurring after an intransitive verb is made the subject of the verb in the passive voice, the preposition remaining as an adverb (see Sec. 183):

The audience jeered at the *speaker* (active).
The *speaker* was jeered at by the audience (passive).

Forms of the Passive Voice

For the forms of the active voice, see Secs. 119, 131.

150. The passive voice of any verb is made by adding the past participle of that verb to the proper form of the verb *be* in the various tenses and moods. Some form of the verb *be* is therefore always used as the auxiliary verb in making the passive voice.

151. The following table shows the passive voice of the verb *know* in the different tenses:

INDICATIVE MOOD

SINGULAR	PLURAL
PRESENT TENSE	
1. I am known.	1. We are known.
2. You are known.	2. You are known.
3. He is known.	3. They are known.
PAST TENSE	
1. I was known.	1. We were known.
2. You were known.	2. You were known.
3. He was known.	3. They were known.
FUTURE TENSE	
1. I shall be known.	1. We shall be known.
2. You will be known.	2. You will be known.
3. He will be known.	3. They will be known.
PRESENT PERFECT TENSE	
1. I have been known.	1. We have been known.
2. You have been known.	2. You have been known.
3. He has been known.	3. They have been known.
PAST PERFECT TENSE	
1. I had been known.	1 We had been known.
2. You had been known.	2. You had been known.
3. He had been known.	3. They had been known.

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have been known.
2. You will have been known.
3. He will have been known.

1. We shall have been known.
2. You will have been known.
3. They will have been known.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. (If) I be known.	1. (If) we be known.
2. (If) you be known.	2. (If) you be known.
3. (If) he be known.	3. (If) they be known.

Past Tense

1. (If) I were known.	1. (If) we were known.
2. (If) you were known.	2. (If) you were known.
3. (If) he were known.	3. (If) they were known.

The other tenses have the same forms as those in the indicative mood, with the exception of the theoretical form (*If*) *he have been known*, instead of *He has been known*, in the present perfect, third person, singular number (see Sec. 134).

EXERCISE 22

Point out the verbs in the following sentences; give the voice of each and, wherever possible, change the verbs in the active voice to the passive voice:

1. We met a procession in the park. 2. Mary has received a letter from her mother. 3. Every member listened with close attention. 4. The officer was promoted for bravery in action. 5. He sent a man who could be trusted. 6. After a hard fight the troops entered the outskirts of the city. 7. In that climate work soon becomes a burden. 8. The explosion was heard for miles. 9. The knight rode quickly to the assistance of his companion. 10. This man is constantly asking his friends for money. 11. The prisoner surrendered his sword to the victorious commander. 12. The message from his employer was delivered to the wrong address. 13. The movement for universal suffrage has been opposed by many politicians. 14. Systematic study will

overcome many difficulties. 15. The speaker gave due credit to the work of the charitable organizations of the city. 16. The sun sets at six o'clock. 17. The waiter was setting the dishes on the table. 18. This information has been submitted to the city authorities. 19. Parallel with the first trenches runs a secondary line of defence. 20. Throughout his life John remained a loyal friend of the convicted banker. 21. At last the smoke of the approaching engine was seen in the distance. 22. In the light of the setting sun the spire gleamed like a column of gold. 23. This machine will cut a thousand blank sheets every hour. 24. The boy remained sullen and looked guilty. 25. Stranger things than this have happened since I saw you. 26. Over a thousand prisoners were captured by our regiment in the last attack. 27. The courses of study are arranged to meet the needs of the majority of the students. 28. He seems capable of doing this work. 29. John has heard the news of his nomination. 30. After the war the soldiers were pensioned by the government. 31. If he had been informed, he would have been prepared. 32. When the package arrives, bring it to me.

INFINITIVES

152. An infinitive is a form of a verb introduced normally by the sign *to,* and used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

Examples are: *to see, to think, to run, to find, to write.*

The infinitive, consisting of *to* followed by a verb, must not be confused with a phrase consisting of the preposition *to* followed by a noun used as its object: compare *to bring, to feel* (infinitives) with *to Europe, to the city* (prepositional phrases). The *to* used in the infinitive was originally a preposition, but in modern English it is better to regard it as simply the *sign* of the infinitive, not as a preposition.

Uses of the Infinitive

153. An infinitive is never used *by itself* as a verb: that is, it cannot be used alone with a subject to make a complete

statement. For example, the phrases, "a plan *to submit* for your approval" or "they *to bring* a package," do not make a statement. A complete sentence must have a verb in addition to the infinitive: "I *have* a plan to submit for your approval." "They *are* to bring a package."

154. An infinitive may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb modifying an adjective or verb.

(1) As a noun:

To run is healthful (subject of the verb).
I want *to go* (object of the verb—answers the question *What?*).
To see is *to believe* (subject of the verb and predicate noun).

(2) As an adjective:

Here is water *to drink* (modifies *water*).
He has a task *to perform* (modifies *task*).

(3) As an adverb, modifying an adjective, verb, or another adverb:

We are glad *to come* (modifies the adjective *glad*).
The ship was ready *to sail* (modifies the adjective *ready*).
He went *to buy* a paper (modifies the verb *went*).
We came *to see* the manager (modifies the verb *came*).
It is too early *to go* (modifies the adverb *too*).

Note 1. Historically, words like *go, see,* and *find* in *can go, will see,* and *must find* are infinitives.

Note 2. Notice that an infinitive used as the object of a verb answers the question *what?* (see Sec. 20); infinitives used as adverbs do not answer this question.

Forms of the Infinitive

155. The various forms of the infinitive are shown in the following table:

ACTIVE VOICE

	Present Tense	Perfect Tense
Simple	to see	to have seen
Progressive	to be seeing	to have been seeing

PASSIVE VOICE

Simple	to be seen	to have been seen

156. Tenses and Voice. The infinitive has two tenses: the present and the perfect (called Present Infinitive and Perfect Infinitive).

(1) In the **Active Voice,** the simple form of the present infinitive is made by prefixing *to* to the root form of the verb (*to turn*); the progressive form, by prefixing *to be* to the present participle (*to be turning*).

The simple form of the perfect infinitive is made by prefixing *to have* to the past participle (*to have turned*); the progressive form, by prefixing *to have been* to the present participle (*to have been turning*).

(2) In the **Passive Voice,** the present infinitive is made by prefixing *to be* to the past participle (*to be turned*); and the perfect infinitive by prefixing *to have been* to the past participle (*to have been turned*). There are no passive progressive forms.

157. Infinitives with the Sign *to* Omitted. The infinitive normally has the sign *to,* but after certain verbs this sign is regularly omitted:

They dare not *go* (to go).
I dare *say* (to say).
You need not *come* so early (to come).
They heard him *scream* (to scream).
I saw him *run* (to run).
They felt the house *shake* (to shake).
We let him *talk* (to talk).

Notice that in the last sentence, if *allowed* is substituted

for *let,* the *to* is not omitted: "We allowed him *to talk.*" Also in the third sentence, if the auxiliary *do* is used before *need,* the *to* is not omitted: "You do not need *to come* so early."

PARTICIPLES

158. A Participle is a verbal adjective: that is, it is a form of a verb used as an adjective to modify a noun or pronoun.

Forms of the Participle

159. The Participle has the following forms:

ACTIVE VOICE

Present Tense	Past Tense	Perfect Tense
seeing	———	**having seen** having been seeing

PASSIVE VOICE

being seen	**seen**	having been seen

160. Of these, the Present Active, Past Passive, and Perfect Active forms (indicated in Sec. 159 by black-face type) are the most important, and hereafter they will be referred to as the **Present Participle, Past Participle,** and **Perfect Participle,** without designation of voice. The other forms are called the Present Passive Participle (*being seen*), Perfect Passive Participle (*having been seen*), and Perfect Active Progressive Participle (*having been seeing*).

Present Participle	Past Participle	Perfect Participle
sinking	sunk	having sunk
breaking	broken	having broken
turning	turned	having turned
catching	caught	having caught

161. The **Present Participle** always ends in *-ing*, and is made by adding *-ing* to the simple form of the verb: as, *being, finding, coming.* (When the simple form of the verb ends in *-e*, that letter is generally dropped when *-ing* is added: *bake, baking.*)

162. The **Past Participle** is usually made by adding *-ed, -d, -t, -en,* or *-n* to the simple form of the verb: as, *walked, placed, slept, fallen, driven;* or by changing the vowel, with or without the addition of a suffix: as, *sung*—for the verb *sing; found*—for the verb *find; spoken*—for the verb *speak.* (For a more complete list, see Sec. 458.)

163. The **Perfect Participle** consists of more than one word, and is made by prefixing *having* to the past participle: as, *having found, having walked, having fallen.*

Uses of the Participle

164. A participle is always used to modify a noun or pronoun, and is therefore always an adjective:

The *running* water undermined the bank.
The book *lying* on the table is a volume of plays.
The man *struck* by the automobile will recover.

In the first sentence, *running* describes *water;* in the second and third, *lying* and *struck* tell which book and which man, respectively, are referred to.

165. The participle has the following special uses, in which its adjective function, although present, is not so obvious:

(1) As part of a verb.

Although a participle is a form of a verb, it is never used *by itself* as a verb. It is, however, frequently combined with an auxiliary verb, and the resulting combination makes a verb. Thus the present participle is combined with various forms of *be* to make the progressive forms of the verb: *is*

walking, will be coming, has been working, etc. Similarly, the past participle is combined with forms of the auxiliary *have* to make the perfect tenses: *have walked, will have seen, had come,* etc.; and with the auxiliary *be* to make the passive voice: *was hurt, has been finished, will be taken.*

In the constructions having *be* as an auxiliary, the participle performs some of the functions of a predicate adjective following a copulative verb (see Sec. 101). For example, in the sentence, "The boy is *singing,*" the participle *singing* modifies the subject *boy* (a singing boy), somewhat as in the sentence, "The boy is *large,*" the adjective *large* modifies the subject (a large boy). Similarly, in "The boy was *injured* by the explosion," the past participle *injured* modifies the subject (an injured boy).

However, in all these phrases the participle is more than a predicate adjective, for it is the participle, and not the auxiliary, that names the action which is taking place. Hence it is proper to say that the entire verb-phrase, such as *is singing,* is the verb in the sentence. This practice is to be followed in parsing these phrases; they are to be split up into copulative verb and participle only when the method of forming them is being described.

Note. Historically, the past participle combined with the auxiliary *have* to form the perfect tenses is an adjective belonging to the direct object.

(2) In the nominative absolute construction (see Sec. 25):

The train *having arrived,* we bade farewell to our friends.
The work *being finished,* we went home.

THE GERUND, OR VERBAL NOUN IN *-ING*

166. The student must guard against the common misconception that every "verb + *ing*" is a participle.

A "verb + ing" is a Participle only when it is used as an adjective; it is a Gerund or Verbal Noun when it is used as

a noun: that is, as the subject of a verb, object of a verb, etc.

Compare the following sentences:

The boy *swimming* in the lake was drowned (participle—modifies *boy*).
The boy enjoys *swimming* in the lake (verbal noun—object of the verb).
Swimming in the lake is good exercise (verbal noun—subject of the verb).
The best exercise is *swimming* (verbal noun—used as a predicate noun).

167. A Participle, a Verbal Noun, or an Infinitive derived from a transitive verb may have a direct object, or both a direct and an indirect object:

The man driving the *horses* is the guide.
Giving the *employés* a just *wage* will satisfy them.
They asked to see the *manager*.

EXERCISE 23

Point out the infinitives, participles, and gerunds; tell how each is used (as subject, object, etc., or what word it modifies); and give the tense of the infinitives and participles:

1. The boys hoped to go with us. 2. Every person living in the precinct was invited to the meeting. 3. Working on the farm was less monotonous than we had expected. 4. The plan is to sell the goods at cost. 5. The speaker having arrived, the exercises of the evening were begun. 6. Every dollar invested in these bonds will help to win the war. 7. John was studying his lesson when we arrived. 8. To err is human, to forgive is divine. 9. The commander having been captured, the remainder of the troops decided to surrender. 10. Excavating for the foundation was the most difficult part of the work. 11. To insure the success of this scheme will be the constant aim of the directors. 12. He wants to buy the coat hanging in the window. 13. The schedule outlined by the committee will be followed in building the new ships. 14. We expect to return to the office before six o'clock. 15. The flying squadron is made up of the bravest and

most daring young men. 16. They have come to visit their cousins. 17. The survivors have received all the money subscribed by the members of the club. 18. The man sitting at the nearest desk is the secretary. 19. A new book written by this author will be published this winter. 20. The officer refused to listen to his explanation. 21. We dare not wait any longer. 22. To delay longer is to invite disaster. 23. He picked up a purse lying on the sidewalk. 24. Only two people came to see the house. 25. Coming up the walk were two strangers, each carrying an unusually large valise. 26. A lever operated by the foot of the pilot raises and lowers the two planes. 27. They were ready to go at ten o'clock. 28. They have a large stock of furniture to sell at auction. 29. We have heard about your receiving the prize. 30. They were afraid to go home alone. 31. We need not wait for the rest of the party. 32. A letter sent to this address was returned unopened. 33. The men object to working ten hours a day. 34. Finding the hidden papers gave the investigators new hope. 35. We were sorry to hear of your misfortune.

STRONG AND WEAK VERBS

168. Verbs are divided into two classes—Strong Verbs and Weak Verbs—according to the method of forming their past tenses and past participles.

169. A **Strong Verb** is one which forms its past tense by changing its vowel, without the addition of an ending; and its past participle either by changing its vowel, by adding *-en* or *-n*, or by both methods:

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
sing	sang	sung
find	found	found
forget	forgot	forgotten
rise	rose	risen

170. A **Weak Verb** is one which regularly forms its past tense and past participle by adding *-ed*, *-d*, or *-t*, to the form of the present tense:

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
walk	walked	walked
plan	planned	planned
wave	waved	waved
deal	dealt	dealt
mean	meant	meant

For irregular forms of weak verbs, see Sec. 458.

DEFECTIVE VERBS

171. A Defective Verb is one in which some of the forms are lacking.

The Defective Verbs are *may, can, will, shall, must,* and *ought.*

May, can, will, and *shall* have a past tense—*might, could, would,* and *should*—in addition to the present tense, but have no future and perfect tenses, infinitive, or participle. *Must* and *ought* have only the one form. Members of this group are primarily used as auxiliary verbs (see Sec. 103).

Note. Will, when used in the sense of *to ordain,* or *to decree,* or *to desire* is not defective.

CHAPTER V

ADVERBS

172. An Adverb is a word used to modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb:

He ran *swiftly* (modifies the verb *ran*).
She was *nearly* frantic (modifies the adjective *frantic*).
He speaks *very fluently* (*very* modifies the adverb *fluently*, which in turn modifies the verb *speaks*).

CLASSES OF ADVERBS

173. Adverbs are divided into the following classes:

1. Adverbs of manner: "She reads *distinctly*." "He works *faithfully*."

Adverbs of manner answer the question *how?* For example, "She reads *how?*" Answer, *distinctly*.

2. Adverbs of place: "They live *here*." "I went *home*." "She is traveling *abroad*."

Adverbs of place answer the question *where?*

3. Adverbs of time: "John will come *soon*." "My father went *yesterday*." "I will write *frequently*."

Adverbs of time answer the question *when?*

4. Adverbs of degree: "He was *very* tall." "She spoke *most* earnestly." "They were *completely* exhausted."

Adverbs of degree approximately answer the question *how much?* or *how little?* Sometimes they seem to answer the question *how?* but with a meaning different from that expressed by adverbs of manner. In adverbs of degree there is always present the idea of *amount, extent,* or *degree.*

The negative adverb *not* is an adverb of degree expressing the greatest possible degree of restriction—the entire absence of a given quality.

Note. The four classes just given cover practically all the uses of *single words* as adverbs; some other adverbial relations, however, are expressed by *groups of words* (phrases and clauses) —see Secs. 198, 229 ff.

FORMS OF ADVERBS

174. Many adverbs are made by adding *-ly* to the adjective form: as, *poorly, rapidly, surely,* from the adjectives *poor, rapid,* and *sure.* Thus we say, "He is a *poor* boy" (adjective); but "He dresses *poorly*" (adverb).

Not all adverbs, however, end in *-ly:* for example, *very, almost, fast, late, hard, little, here, there,* and *often.* When an adverb of this sort has a corresponding adjective, the two are identical in form and are distinguished only by their use in the sentence: thus, "This is a *fast* train" (adjective) and "The horse ran *fast*" (adverb).

On the other hand, a word ending in *-ly* is not always an adverb; it may, for example, be an adjective: as, a *princely* gift, a *lovely* rose, a *likely* candidate, a *comely* woman.

(a) Nouns are frequently used as adverbs, especially to indicate *time* or *place* (see Sec. 28):

They arrived last *Monday.*
He went *home.*

175. Comparison of Adverbs. Adverbs, like adjectives, have three degrees of comparison: the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

A few adverbs make their comparative and superlative degrees by adding *-er* and *-est,* respectively, to the positive form: as, *late, later, latest; often, oftener, oftenest; soon, sooner, soonest.*

Most adverbs, however, form their comparative and super-

lative degrees by using *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least:* as, *beautifully, more beautifully, most beautifully; finely, more finely, most finely; rapidly, less rapidly, least rapidly.*

With some adverbs, both methods of comparison may be used: as, *often; oftener* or *more often; oftenest* or *most often.*

176. The following adverbs have an irregular comparison:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
near	nearer	nearest, next
well	better	best
little	less	least
much	more	most
ill, badly	worse	worst
late	later	latest

Some adverbs, such as *now, then, there, hitherto,* etc., cannot be compared.

For a further discussion of adverbs, see Chapter XVI.

EXERCISE 24

Point out the adverbs, give the class to which each belongs (manner, place, time, or degree), and tell what word it modifies:

1. The work was soon finished. 2. This firm has been slowly but surely winning its way into popular favor, and now it is ready to begin a more aggressive campaign. 3. Already a number of unusually large contracts have been made with the allied countries. 4. He had hitherto been regarded as a scrupulously honest man. 5. Today you will receive a message from the president. 6. There are always two sides to every question. 7. They expect to arrive there next Monday. 8. Almost every man in the precinct has voted this morning. 9. They arrived nearly two hours late, but they soon made up the lost time by working hard and uninterruptedly. 10. An employé who is habitually late often causes confusion in an office. 11. His conversation is usually rather dull, but sometimes he talks brilliantly. 12. The country soon became wilder and more desolate, and suddenly

dropped a hundred feet to meet the constantly shifting sands of the Great Desert. 13. Most earnestly the speaker exhorted his audience to bear their afflictions patiently. 14. This problem is much more difficult than those previously assigned. 15. These accidents occur less frequently than many people suppose. 16. They were ill prepared for the severe storm which suddenly swept the valley. 17. He laughs best who laughs last. 18. The man with the heaviest burden will not travel far. 19. The prisoner was outwardly the least concerned of all those present. 20. Silently the troops marched through the streets of the ruined town. 21. It was the most vividly colored dress that I have ever seen. 22. Slowly and sadly they laid him to rest.

CHAPTER VI

PREPOSITIONS

177. A Preposition is a connecting word which shows the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word in the sentence.

Thus in the sentence, "John came *from* the city," the preposition *from* shows the relation of the noun *city* to the verb *came*—John came *from*, not *to*, the city.

178. The majority of prepositions indicate direction or position: as, *over, behind, from, to, above, below, out, in, around, through, beyond, across, beside*, etc.

Some prepositions, however, represent other kinds of relations: as, *of, except, for, besides*, etc.

179. Object of a Preposition. A preposition is regularly followed by a noun or pronoun which is called the object of the preposition (see Sec. *22*):

They work at *home*.
Here is a letter from *her*.

180. In a few idiomatic expressions, an adverb or an adjective is used as the object, and thus becomes a noun-equivalent:

1. **Adverb:**
I did not know until *now*.
He had come before *then*.
They will go from *there*.
I can see it from *here*.
They wrote from *far* and *near*.

2. **Adjective:**
We worked in *vain.*
They looked on *high* for help.

181. The object is occasionally placed before the preposition:

They searched the world *over* (*over* the world).
He looked the house *through* (*through* the house).

182. Groups of Words used as Prepositions. Sometimes two or more words are used together to form, in effect, a single preposition: as, *in spite of, on account of, out of, instead of, according to,* etc.:

They will go *in spite of* the rain.
The building was constructed *according to* specifications.

These groups are usually parsed as single prepositions.

183. Words used as Prepositions and as Adverbs. Some words which are generally thought of as prepositions may also be used as adverbs. They are prepositions when they have an object expressed, and adverbs when they are without an object:

Prepositions	Adverbs
They came *in* a carriage.	Come *in!*
He fell *down* the embankment.	He fell *down.*
She walked *on* the grass.	She walked *on.*
He ran *around* the house.	He turned *around.*

EXERCISE 25

Point out the prepositions, give their objects, and tell the words with which they connect their objects:

1. He went through the town at noon. 2. They were absent on account of illness. 3. The mercury went below zero before midnight. 4. Some people from home have been visiting at our house. 5. All the guests except her arrived in time for the party. 6. This map is confusing to a stranger in the city. 7. Indianapo-

lis is a hundred miles from here. 8. We have had complaints from many citizens about the laxness of the police officials. 9. We tried in vain to get a reply. 10. They walked around the block four times. 11. The soldiers marched across the long iron bridge in single file. 12. A stranger in ragged clothes stood before the open door of the lonely cottage.

For an additional exercise in prepositions, see Exercise 27.

CHAPTER VII

CONJUNCTIONS

184. A Conjunction is a connecting word used to join words or groups of words in a sentence:

John *and* James came today (*and* connects the nouns *John, James*).

The waves rose *and* fell (*and* connects the verbs *rose, fell*).

He must go to church *or* to school (*or* connects the groups *to church, to school*).

They came *when* they were invited (*when* connects the groups *they came, they were invited*).

185. There are two classes of Conjunctions—Co-ordinate and Subordinate.

186. A Co-ordinate Conjunction connects things of equal rank, as nouns with nouns, verbs with verbs, adjectives with adjectives, phrases with phrases, clauses with clauses of equal rank, etc.:

It was a black *and* white dog (*and* connects the adjectives *black* and *white*).

He went *but* I stayed (*but* connects the two main clauses *he went, I stayed*).

The first three sentences given above in Sec. 184 show the use of co-ordinate conjunctions to connect nouns, verbs, and phrases.

Note. A phrase is a group of words without a subject and verb. A clause is a group of words having a subject and a verb.

The principal Co-ordinate Conjunctions are *and, but, or,* and *nor.*

187. These Conjunctions in combination with other words

form **Correlative Conjunctions**: as, *both—and, not only—but (also), either—or, neither—nor:*

Both the brother *and* the sister were present.
Neither the window *nor* the door was open.

188. A Subordinate Conjunction connects a subordinate clause with a word or another clause on which it depends:

He worked *while* it was raining.
They will go *if* you wish.
He refused *because* he was timid.

A subordinate clause may be placed at the beginning of a sentence. Thus the second sentence given above might be written, "*If* you wish, they will go." From a logical and grammatical point of view, the subordinate conjunction in such instances still connects the two clauses, although it does not actually stand between them.

Some of the more common subordinate conjunctions are: *if, although, though, when, while, until, as, since, that, because.*

189. Distinguishing between Prepositions and Conjunctions. Some rough rules for distinguishing between prepositions and conjunctions—both of which are connecting words—are the following:

(1) *And, but, or,* and *nor,* together with the correlatives formed from them, are almost always conjunctions. An exception occurs in the use of *but* in the sense of *except,* as in "All were there *but* (except) my father," in which case *but* is a preposition (followed by an object).

(2) Most of the other conjunctions are used to introduce clauses: that is, they will be followed by a subject and a verb; whereas prepositions are followed by an object—a noun or a pronoun—and not by a subject and verb.

Note. These rules are intended as an aid to the student in his present stage of progress. A better idea of conjunctions will be obtained in the later study of clauses.

190. Words used as Prepositions or as Conjunctions. Some connectives may be either prepositions or conjunctions, depending upon their use in a sentence (see Sec. 189):

Prepositions (Followed by an Object)	Conjunctions (Followed by a Subject and a Verb)
He went *after* dinner.	He went *after* dinner had been served.
He came *before* noon.	He came *before* the clock had struck twelve.
He has been here *since* morning.	He has been here *since* the sun rose.
He asked *for* money.	He needed money, *for* he was hungry.

191. Groups of Words used as Conjunctions. Sometimes a group of two or more words is used as a conjunction: *in order that, as if, as though, as well as,* etc.: "He worked rapidly, *in order that* he might finish early."

EXERCISE 26

Name the conjunctions in the following sentences, and tell what words or groups of words they connect:

1. The boy and girl were brother and sister. 2. The doctor will return on Sunday or Monday. 3. They waited until the doors were opened. 4. It was already six o'clock, but the guests had not arrived. 5. He must either pay his dues or lose his membership. 6. If they do not come, we must send for them. 7. The travelers were both tired and hungry. 8. You will find him in the office or at the bank. 9. The children went to the shop and bought some books. 10. There was a red and blue rug on the floor. 11. She will neither play nor sing, for she is not feeling well.

EXERCISE 27

Point out the prepositions and conjunctions, and tell what words or groups of words they connect. Give the objects of the prepositions:

1. The doors of the bank will be open after nine o'clock. 2. No one will be admitted to the hall after the program begins. 3. You must come to the house and rest, when you have finished your work. 4. John or James will do this for a dollar. 5. Can you talk and write at the same time? 6. Because of this fact, he will not permit me to go. 7. Black and stormy clouds were gathering in the west. 8. By midnight we had finished all but fifty pages. 9. The work is hard but it is interesting. 10. Neither money nor fame will tempt him to enter this profession. 11. It is a distance of two hundred miles from Jamestown to Centerville. 12. He will tell you as soon as he arrives. 13. The workmen placed the chest beneath the window when they left. 14. The procession marched through the streets until it reached Central Park. 15. Jack fell down and broke his crown. 16. The boy fell down the stairs and broke his arm. 17. The building across the street was built for a school. 18. According to the latest reports, a number of people were killed or injured in the accident at the railroad crossing. 19. The meeting will be held just two weeks from now. 20. Not only the house but also the barn were destroyed by fire. 21. The work will be finished by Saturday in spite of this delay. 22. They walked as if they were tired. 23. He does most of his work before six o'clock. 24. He read the contract carefully before he signed it. 25. As he reached the corner he turned around and waved his hand. 26. The steamer disappeared from sight around a bend in the river. 27. Everyone but John has paid his dues for the month. 28. He looked through the big telescope at the stars and the moon. 29. Either he will pay the money or his goods will be confiscated. 30. They went early in order that they might catch the train. 31. There had been trouble between him and me for several months.

CHAPTER VIII

PHRASES

In the preceding chapters we have been dealing with the eight parts of speech. In the present section and the one that follows we pass to the discussion of groups of words, made up of various combinations of the parts of speech. These groups are Phrases and Clauses.

192. A Phrase is a group of related words without a subject and a verb.

Broadly speaking, the term "phrase" includes any group of related words without a subject and a verb: as, *a red book, running very rapidly.* In practice, however, it is usually restricted to certain groups having a formal introductory word (see below).

FORMS OF PHRASES

193. Phrases may be divided, according to the nature of their introductory words, into four classes:

(1) Prepositional Phrases: "He lives *at home.*"

(2) Infinitive Phrases: "He went *to buy a hat.*"

(3) Participial Phrases: "They arrested the man *driving the car.*"

(4) Gerundive Phrases: "*Playing the piano* is his favorite amusement."

These are introduced by prepositions, infinitives, participles, and gerunds, respectively.

194. Prepositional Phrases. A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and its object, together with any modifiers that may be present. Thus the phrase, *on an extremely hot afternoon,* consists of the preposition *on,* the object *afternoon,* the article *an* and the adjective *hot* modifying *afternoon,* and the adverb *extremely* modifying *hot.*

195. Infinitive, Participial, and Gerundive Phrases. Infinitive, participial, and gerundive phrases consist respectively of an infinitive, participle, or gerund, followed by an object or by other adjuncts (see the next section). To take only one example, the infinitive phrase, *to understand clearly the exact plans,* consists of the infinitive *to understand,* its object *plans,* the adverb *clearly* modifying the infinitive, the article *the* and the adjective *exact* modifying the noun *plans.*

Adjuncts Used in Forming Phrases

196. Infinitives, participles, and gerunds are derived from verbs, and because they retain some of the characteristics of the original verbs, they may have any of the verbal adjuncts, such as an object or an adverb.

For example, a gerund is used as a noun, and ordinary nouns do not take adjuncts of this sort. These are possible because of the verbal element that has been retained. On the other hand, a gerund, because of the noun element present in it, may be modified by an adjective.

197. Table of Adjuncts. The principal adjuncts used with infinitives, participles, and gerunds to form phrases are as follows (the phrases are set off by vertical lines; the adjuncts are indicated by italics):

Direct Object:
He wanted | to borrow a *dollar.*
The man | carrying the *parcel* | was arrested.
Reading the *reports* | occupied most of the day.

Indirect Object:

To send the *commander* this reply | required considerable courage.

The man | bringing *us* the book | is the chief clerk.

Buying his *mother* a present | was a pleasant duty.

Predicate Adjective:

To be *honest* | is his desire.

Being *ill,* | I postponed the trip.

Being *wealthy* | does not always mean | being *happy.*

Predicate Noun:

He wanted | to be a *sailor.*

Being an *invalid,* | he does not attend school.

Being a *soldier* | requires self-sacrifice.

Adverb:

He expects | to go *immediately.*

Turning *quickly,* | he opened the door.

Swimming *rapidly* | is good exercise.

Adjective:

Careful planning | will prevent mistakes.

Phrase:

He told me | to wait *at the station.*

The man | sitting *at the desk* | is the manager.

Walking *in the park* | is his favorite amusement.

(In these constructions we have a phrase within another phrase.)

Clause:

To study *when the brain is weary* | means inefficient work. (In these cases we have, not a pure phrase, but a mixed phrase and clause.)

Note 1. Adjectives and nouns occurring after infinitives, participles, and gerunds derived from verbs like *be, seem,* and *appear* are predicate adjectives and predicate nouns. In many cases there is no subject to which they belong, but their nature may be seen by making the following test: For the infinitive, participle, or gerund, substitute a simple form of the corresponding verb (for instance, substitute *is* for *being*); place a subject, such as *he* or any other suitable noun or pronoun, before the verb; then after the verb place the adjective or noun that is being tested. Thus in the sentence, "Being an invalid, he does not attend school," change *"being* an invalid" to *"he is* an invalid," and it is obvious that *invalid* is a predicate noun. It is therefore called a predicate noun after the participle also.

Note 2. Some grammarians restrict the use of the term "phrase" practically to a preposition and its object. Others include infinitives, participles, and gerunds followed by an *object,* but exclude combinations of these introductory words with other adjuncts. In the latter case, they prefer to call the constructions simple infinitives, participles, and gerunds modified by certain adjuncts, which are treated separately. However, there is sufficient unity in all the groups to warrant our calling them phrases, and regarding them, as a whole, as substitutes for parts of speech. The distinction is not a vital one; it is only a matter of convenience in classification.

USES OF PHRASES

198. Phrases are used as single parts of speech: as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs:

(1) As a Noun:
Subject of a verb:
To read the report was the work of a moment.
Swimming the river was a difficult task.
Predicate Noun:
His object is *to defeat the enemy.*
The most difficult process is *making the cylinder.*
Direct Object of a Verb:
He hopes *to find the money.*
He enjoys *playing chess.*
Object of a Preposition:
He persisted in *beating the drum.*
In Apposition:
Her avowed purpose—*to help mankind*—was only a pretense.
His chief ambition—*making a large fortune*—has been realized.
(2) As an Adjective:
The man *from home* has arrived.
They gave us permission *to buy candy.*
The man *writing the letter* is the secretary.
(3) As an Adverb:
He came *in the morning.*
He went *to see the parade.*
The boy, *hearing the noise,* went to the window.

Adverbial phrases, like adverbial clauses, express time, place,

manner, degree, cause, purpose, degree, condition, and concession. For a discussion of these classes, see Secs. 229 ff.

199. The **Infinitive Phrase** is the only type of phrase that regularly performs the functions of all the three parts of speech. A gerundive phrase is used as a noun; a participial phrase as an adjective or as an adverb in a dual relation (see Sec. 200); and a prepositional phrase chiefly as an adjective or as an adverb.

200. Some **Participial Phrases** have a peculiar **dual function**: the participle which introduces the phrase is an adjective modifying a noun, but the whole phrase is an adverb modifying a verb. For example, in the sentence, "Harry, *seeing the danger,* shouted a warning," the participle *seeing* modifies *Harry* but the whole phrase modifies *shouted*—that is, it is an adverb telling *why* he shouted.

A participial phrase is not used as an adverb except in this dual relation; the noun to which the participle belongs should always be in the sentence.

201. A **Gerundive Phrase** is the same in *appearance* as a participial phrase; the two are distinguished by their use—the former as a noun and the latter as an adjective or as an adverb in a dual relation, respectively.

SPECIAL TYPES OF PHRASES

202. There remain three types of phrases which are different, in general structure, from those previously discussed:

203. Verb-Phrase. The term *Verb-Phrase* is a convenient expression to use in designating those forms of a verb which are made with an auxiliary—that is, those forms which consist of more than one word: as, *will be, could go, had found, is walking, have been searching.* They require no further discussion.

204. Nominative Absolute Phrase. This construction consists of a noun and a participle used as follows (see Sec. 25):

The sun having set, darkness slowly descended.
Our baggage having been found, we boarded the train.
Dinner being over, we assembled in the drawing room.
His mind failing, he was sent to a sanitarium.
All things considered, the decision was just.

(a) The Nominative Absolute Phrase generally stands at the beginning of the sentence, but it may be placed elsewhere:

The train was late, *the bridges having been swept away by the flood.*
He sat quietly, *his face buried in his hands.*

(b) The Nominative Absolute Phrase is regularly used as an adverb. It usually indicates reason or time, but sometimes condition, concession, or manner (for the different adverbial relations, see under Clauses, Secs. 230 ff).

(c) Occasionally the participle is omitted in the absolute phrase, when it can be easily supplied by the reader:

Dinner over, we assembled in the drawing room.

205. Infinitive Phrase with a Subject. An infinitive is sometimes used with a noun or pronoun which stands in much the same relation to the infinitive as the subject of an ordinary verb bears to that verb:

We knew *them to be friendly.*
We believed *him to be a deserter.*
They expected *the messenger to return at once.*

In these sentences the infinitive phrase with a subject is the object of the verb, and is equivalent to a noun clause (see Sec. 227 (3)). Thus "We knew *them to be friendly*" is equivalent to "We knew *that they were friendly.*" In the phrase, the infinitive *to be* takes the place of the verb *were,*

and *them* stands for *they*, the subject of *were*. *Them* is called the subject of the infinitive.

206. A somewhat different type of infinitive with a subject is illustrated in the following sentences:

They told *us to speak quickly.*
He commanded *me to open the door.*
The officials asked *John to accept the position.*

In these sentences, the simple infinitive might be regarded as the direct object of the verb and the noun or pronoun as the indirect object. Thus, in "They told *us to speak quickly*," the infinitive *to speak quickly* tells *what* they said (direct object) and *us* shows *to whom* they said it (indirect object) (see Secs. 20, 21). However, after some verbs, such as those given in the first set of examples, this interpretation is not possible, and it is therefore simpler to regard all these constructions as phrases containing an infinitive with a subject. The entire phrase is the direct object of the verb.

207. An infinitive with a subject is sometimes used as the object of the preposition *for*, and the prepositional-infinitive phrase thus formed may be the subject of a verb, a predicate noun, the object of a verb, or an adverb:

For him to falter would be dangerous (subject).
The best plan is *for Henry to write a personal letter* (predicate noun).
I did not intend *for you to leave so early* (object).
They have been waiting *for you to come* (adverb).

208. The **Subject of an Infinitive** is always in the objective case:

The committee considered *him* to be trustworthy.
The jury found *him* to be insane.

209. A **Predicate Noun or Pronoun** after an infinitive having a subject in the objective case, is in the same case, to agree with the subject:

We thought her to be *him*.
We believed these men to be *them*.

Notice that if the infinitive is changed into an ordinary verb, both the subject and the predicate pronoun are in the nominative case: "We thought that *she* was *he*." "He believed that these men were *they*."

EXERCISE 28

Point out the prepositional, infinitive, participial, and gerundive phrases; tell whether they are used as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs, and in the last two uses tell what words the phrases modify:

1. The specifications for the building are ready. 2. We know his desire to excel in everything. 3. At the close of the meeting the president waited to shake hands with the members of the committee. 4. The article describing the battle was suppressed by the censor. 5. Having the recent failure in mind, we were afraid to risk another attempt. 6. To merit the applause of his fellow citizens was his desire. 7. A passion for money brought him to grief. 8. To reach the island, we swam across a narrow channel. 9. Sailing a boat in a stiff wind requires a cool head and steady hand. 10. The detectives, knowing the haunts of the fugitive, were soon able to capture him. 11. At sunset the flag was lowered from the mast. 12. Special rules for conducting the campaign were made by the manager. 13. They found the boys playing a game of ball. 14. The clerk tried to sell me a green hat. 15. We came to get the package of books purchased by Mr. Smith. 16. His youngest son, realizing the danger, ran for help. 17. A contract for the work will be signed on Monday by the firm submitting the lowest bid. 18. The book lying on the table is a dictionary of synonyms. 19. He is thinking about buying a house. 20. Before writing the report, he went to the city library, hoping to find some additional data. 21. He has a genius for getting into trouble. 22. To concede this point is to admit defeat, for it would mean acknowledging the right of the employees to join the union. 23. He wanted his brother to help with the work. 24. We let him tell his story. 25. The idea is to make the best goods for the least money. 26. The chief difficulty was for him to borrow the money. 27. We do not expect John to be there.

CHAPTER IX

CLAUSES

210. A Clause is a group of words forming a part of a sentence, and containing a subject and a verb.

The chief distinction between a clause and a phrase is that the former has a subject and a verb, whereas the latter is without these two elements.

211. Main Clauses and Subordinate Clauses. There are two classes of clauses: Main Clauses and Subordinate Clauses. The former are sometimes called Independent or Co-ordinate Clauses; the latter are also known as Dependent Clauses.

(1) A **Main Clause,** as its name implies, is the principal part of the sentence, the part which normally makes the most important statement. Without it, the sentence would be incomplete.

(2) A **Subordinate Clause** is a clause which is dependent upon the main clause, and which is used as a single part of speech in the sentence—that is, as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

Thus in the sentence, "He came home when I called," the main clause, *he came home,* makes the principal statement, and the subordinate clause, *when I called,* is used as an adverb to modify the verb *came*—it tells *when* he came.

MAIN CLAUSES

212. A Main Clause is the clause which makes the principal statement in a sentence.

In the simplest form of sentence (containing only one group of words having a subject and a verb—for example, "They will arrive at noon") it is not customary to call the group a clause, that term being reserved for *a part of a sentence.* In effect, however, this group is equivalent to a main clause.

In any sentence made up of two or more clauses, *one of them at least must be a main clause.* The others may be subordinate, or there may be one or more additional main clauses. The various combinations of clauses will be discussed in the next chapter, on Sentences.

213. Relationship between Main Clauses. When there are two or more main clauses in a sentence, the statements which they make must have a definite logical relationship with each other. The four principal relations are as follows:

1. Harmony or Agreement in Thought.
2. Contrast or Opposition in Thought.
3. Alternation or Choice.
4. Consequence or Inference.

The typical conjunctions for these four classes are *and, but, or,* and *therefore,* respectively.

1. Harmony or Agreement in Thought

214. In this group the second clause may, for instance, add another statement that naturally follows and carries forward the thought of the first clause, may set forth another step in a series of incidents, or may give another item of detail in a description:

The owner died, *and* the property passed into the hands of strangers.

We went to the door, *and* there we found a messenger with a telegram.

The door was hanging by one hinge, *and* the glass had entirely disappeared from the windows.

The house is modern; *moreover,* it is conveniently located.

The principal conjunctions for this group are *and, likewise, moreover, furthermore, in like manner,* and *besides.*

This general class includes two special types of relationship:

215. General Statement and Specific Example. The second clause gives an example illustrating the general statement in the first clause:

There are a number of mistakes in the article: *for example,* in the first paragraph the writer twice uses the word "effect" for "affect."

In many respects the witness was unsatisfactory: *for instance,* he evaded pertinent questions and forgot certain essential details.

The principal conjunctions are *for example, for instance,* and *thus.*

216. General Statement and Specific Explanation. The second clause explains—sometimes practically repeats—the thought of the first clause in more specific terms:

He is a very wealthy man: his property is conservatively valued at twenty million dollars.

She practised the golden rule: *that is,* she treated others as she would have them treat her.

Clauses in this relation are frequently not connected by conjunctions; sometimes *that is, in other words,* and similar connectives are employed.

Note the use of the colon in the clauses in Secs. 215 and 216.

2. Contrast or Opposition in Thought

217. The thought in the second clause is in contrast to that in the first clause:

Harry is intelligent, *but* he lacks initiative.
The president spoke eloquently in favor of the amendment; *nevertheless,* the members refused to adopt it.
The society is only four years old; *however,* it has already effected a number of reforms.

The principal conjunctions for this group are *but, nevertheless, however, yet, on the other hand,* and *on the contrary.*

3. Alternation or Choice

218. The second clause presents an alternative to the statement in the first one:

You must bring your ticket, *or* you will not be admitted.
Either the train is late, *or* my watch is fast.

The principal conjunctions are *or, nor, either—or, neither—nor, otherwise,* and sometimes *else.*

4. Consequence or Inference

219. The fact stated in the second clause is a consequence of that in the first clause, or is an inference from it:

He had made a thorough study of the subject; *consequently* he was able to answer all the questions.
The boy was small for his age and somewhat frail; *hence* he was unable to do any of the heavy work.
The books have been missing for a year; *therefore* they have probably been stolen.

In each of the first two sentences the second clause states a fact which is a direct consequence of what was said in the first clause. In the last sentence the second clause contains an inference made from the preceding statement.

The principal conjunctions are *therefore, consequently, hence, accordingly, so, thus, as a result,* and *for this reason;* sometimes *so that.*

CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

220. The principal co-ordinate conjunctions have already been cited under the different classes of relations.

And, but, or, and *therefore*—the typical or "key" conjunctions for the four classes—are the ones most frequently employed. The others are used for the sake of variety or occasionally for greater emphasis.

221. Sometimes a "key" conjunction is combined with another connective belonging to its group:

and likewise, and furthermore, and moreover, etc.; *but nevertheless, but yet,* etc. (rarely, if ever, *but however*); *or else* (rarely, *or otherwise*).

And is also frequently combined with the regular conjunctions expressing consequence: *and therefore, and consequently, and so,* etc. *And* alone should not be used with this class.

222. Position of the Conjunctions. *And, but, or,* and *nor* stand at the beginning of the clause. The other conjunctions may be placed at the beginning of the clause, or within it:

He was angry, *and* he could not conceal the fact.
He was angry; *furthermore,* he could not conceal the fact.
He was angry; he *furthermore* could not conceal the fact.
He was angry; *and furthermore* he could not conceal the fact.
He was angry, *and* it was apparent, *furthermore,* that he could not conceal the fact.

223. Omission of the Conjunction. The conjunction is sometimes omitted if it is easily understood by the reader and the resulting connection is smooth:

His father is the president of the company; ∧ his uncle was formerly the secretary (*and* is omitted).

Poor boys have often risen to positions of honor: ∧ Abraham Lincoln was born in poverty and became president of the United States (*for example* is omitted).

His enemies call him a traitor; ∧ his friends say that he is merely a victim of circumstances (*but* is omitted).

224. When there are three or more main clauses in a sentence, the conjunctions are usually omitted between all the clauses except the last two:

Our plans were complete, the contracts were signed, *and* we were waiting for the contractor to begin work.

(a) Occasionally, however, conjunctions are placed between all the clauses:

The rain descended, *and* the floods came, *and* the winds blew and beat upon that house, *and* it fell not, for it was founded upon a rock.

EXERCISE 29

Point out the main clauses and tell the class to which each belongs; also name the conjunctions:

1. Everyone must be at his desk by 8:55 A. M.; likewise he must be ready to start work promptly at nine o'clock. 2. It was a small book of about fifty pages, but it gave an excellent discussion of the question. 3. The clerk was not content merely to satisfy his employers: he desired to excel in whatever he undertook. 4. We expected the goods on Saturday; however, a delay of a day or two will not seriously delay the work. 5. The plan was an excellent one, but the workmen failed to carry it out properly. 6. The cause of the trouble is apparent; therefore we should have no difficulty in finding a remedy. 7. Reinforcements must be sent at once; otherwise the garrison will be compelled to surrender. 8. The lock on his desk had been forced, and a hasty examination showed that some important papers had been taken. 9. Each man must do his share of the work, or the plan will fail. 10. He has been studying this subject for many years; consequently he is well fitted to be the chairman of the committee. 11. No word had been received from headquarters, but the colonel nevertheless ordered the regiment to move to a

new position. 12. The streets of the town are in a deplorable condition: Union Avenue, for instance, in the center of the commercial district, is almost impassable after a heavy rain. 13. The frame of the machine is made of aluminum, and it is therefore very light. 14. Every bolt is in place; the last nail has been driven. 15. On request, we will send our latest catalog; in this you will find a full description of all our machines. 16. John likes to study; Harry despises books.

EXERCISE 30

Write three sentences illustrating each of the classes of relationship between main clauses; do not use the same conjunction.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

225. A Subordinate Clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb, and used as a single part of speech in a sentence.

226. Subordinate Clauses are used as Nouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs, and are then called respectively, Noun Clauses, Adjective Clauses, and Adverbial Clauses.

Uses of Noun Clauses

227. The principal uses of Noun Clauses are:

(1) As the Subject of a Verb:

That he will succeed is evident.
Whatever you do will be satisfactory.
What you say is true.

(2) As a Predicate Noun:

The truth is *that the army was not prepared.*

(3) As the Direct Object of a Verb:

He said *that he was a lawyer.*
They know *where the gold is hidden.*

(4) As the Object of a Preposition:

I was frightened by *what he said.*
Give it to *whoever comes first.*

(5) In Apposition with a Noun:

The statement *that all men are created equal* must not be taken too literally.

(6) As an Objective Complement:

We will make the price *whatever you think is reasonable.* (Compare, "We will make the price *fifty dollars.*")

(7) In Direct Address:

Whoever did that, stand up.

(8) As the Indirect Object of a Verb:

They gave *whoever came* a present (better, "They gave a present to *whoever came*").

(9) In the Nominative Absolute Construction:

That the plan was successful having been admitted, payment should be made at once (better, "*The success of the plan having been admitted,* payment should be made at once").

Note. Uses (8) and (9) are permissible, but these constructions are often awkward and should be used with caution.

EXERCISE 31

Point out the noun clauses, and tell how each one is used:

1. He could not understand why he had failed. 2. What the terms will be, is not yet known. 3. What the result will be, no one knows. 4. My understanding is that all the orders have been filled. 5. The fact that he had not been at home that night made the officers suspicious. 6. He will be grateful for whatever you do. 7. They at last succeeded in finding where the mistake had been made. 8. That he should oppose this action is only natural. 9. They will buy the goods from whoever quotes the best price. 10. Whatever he does, he does efficiently. 11. Realizing that they were lost, the travelers decided to wait for daylight. 12. He would not tell how the machine was constructed.

13. His decision was that the claim should be granted. 14. The feeling that a change is necessary has been prevalent for some time. 15. He objected to the statement that the crisis was past.

EXERCISE 32

Write two sentences illustrating each of the five principal uses of noun clauses (the first five in the list in Sec. 227).

Uses of Adjective Clauses

228. Adjective Clauses modify nouns or pronouns:

He lost the watch *which you gave him.*
The men *who work in the factory* are well paid.
He did not know the hour *when we arrived.*
The house *where Shakespeare lived* is now a museum.

The majority of adjective clauses are introduced by relative pronouns, but some have other introductory words, as in the last two of the preceding examples.

An adjective clause regularly follows the noun which it modifies.

EXERCISE 33

Point out the adjective clauses, and tell what nouns they modify:

1. This is a book which everybody should read. 2. The ore from which this metal is extracted is found only in Norway. 3. Mr. A. F. Moore, who was then president of the bank, was responsible for the change. 4. The candidate that spends the most money is usually the one who gets the nomination. 5. Washington, which is the capital of the United States, is situated in the District of Columbia. 6. This is the man for whom we have been waiting. 7. They found the place where the meeting was to be held. 8. He promised that everyone who came would receive fair treatment. 9. The house that stands on the corner is the home of the judge. 10. The meeting was held on the *New York,* which was the flagship of the fleet. 11. He told me

the reason why he was late. 12. This is the room in which he lived.

Uses of Adverbial Clauses

229. Adverbial Clauses usually modify verbs, sometimes adjectives or adverbs.

230. Adverbial clauses are divided into nine general classes, depending upon the kind of relationship which they express:

231. Clauses of Time:

Bryant wrote this poem *when he was eighteen years old.*
They arrived *before the arrangements had been completed.*
Whenever you come, you will find someone at home.

Adverbial Clauses of Time answer the question, *When?*

232. Clauses of Place:

They will be standing *where you can see them.*
Wherever he goes, he makes himself agreeable.

Adverbial Clauses of Place answer the question, *Where?*

233. Clauses of Manner:

The president acted *as if he were bored.*
They did the work *as they were directed.*

Adverbial Clauses of Manner answer the question, *How?*

234. Clauses of Degree:

They have more money *than they need.*
He is older *than his appearance indicates.*
A man is as old *as he feels.*
a They work as hard *as you do.*
He ran more swiftly *than his companion did.*
b She has so far recovered *that she can walk downstairs.*
The wound was so serious *that an operation was necessary.*

Adverbial Clauses of Degree answer the question, *How much? How little? How far?* etc.

235. Under clauses of degree are included clauses which

also express the idea of: (a) *Comparison,* illustrated by the fourth and fifth sentences; and (b) *Result,* illustrated by the last two.

For example, in the fourth sentence a comparison is made between how *they* work and how *you* work; in the last sentence the result of the serious character of the wound was *that an operation was necessary.* These clauses, however, also indicate degree, and for convenience may be classified under this heading.

236. Clauses of Cause or Reason:

They came *because they were invited.*
As he was very feeble, we objected to his going alone.
This candidate should be elected, *for he is honest and sincere.*

Adverbial Clauses of Cause or Reason answer the question, *Why?*

237. Clauses of Purpose:

They live frugally *in order that they may save money.*
They marked the trail *so that the rest of the party might find it easily.*
Men work *that they may eat.*

Adverbial Clauses of Purpose—like clauses expressing cause or reason—answer the question, *Why?* The distinguishing feature between the two classes is that a purpose clause carries the idea that the action was *definitely planned beforehand* with a particular end in view.

238. Clauses of Condition:

The work can be finished *if each man will do his part.*
Should it be necessary to change your plans, please write to us at once.
He will not come *unless he is invited.*

Adverbial Clauses of Condition are introduced by *if* or by some equivalent word. *Should it be* is equivalent to *if it*

should be; unless means *if—not. Provided* and *provided that* are other equivalents.

These clauses state the circumstances or condition under which a certain thing will be done, or is possible.

239. Clauses of Concession:

Although it was only nine o'clock, the streets were deserted.
They were not disheartened, *though the first attempt had failed.*
The plan was a good one, *even though it was not successful.*

An Adverbial Clause of Concession is introduced by *although* or some equivalent conjunction. It concedes or admits that the statement which it contains is opposed to the statement made in the main clause, but asserts that *in spite of* this opposing factor the main statement is true.

(a) The compound relative pronouns *whatever, whichever, whoever,* and expressions like *however much, no matter what,* etc., are sometimes used as equivalents of *although* at the beginning of clauses of concession:

Whatever the provocation may have been, the attack was unjustifiable.
However much we try, we cannot make any progress.
No matter what plans you make, you must be ready to adapt them to new conditions.

The first sentence, for example, is equivalent to "Although the provocation may have been great, the attack was unjustifiable."

240. Complementary Clauses Modifying Adjectives:

He was sorry *that he came.*
I am sure *that you will agree.*
We are confident *that he is the right man.*
He was careful *that we should not see him.*

This group consists of clauses used after certain adjectives, such as *sorry, glad, sure, afraid, confident,* etc., to complete

the meaning of the adjectives. A few of them approximate in meaning some of the eight classes named above. For instance, in the sentence, "He was sorry *that he came,*" the subordinate clause has a meaning somewhat, although not exactly, like that of the clause in "He was sorry *because he came*" (clause of reason). Others, such as "I am sure *that you will agree,*" do not fall into any of the preceding classes. In parsing the clauses of the present group, it is sufficient to call them Complementary Adverbial Clauses Modifying Adjectives, without regard to their affiliation with any of the eight previous groups.

Position of Adverbial Clauses

241. Adverbial clauses may:

(1) Follow the main clause: "He will go *when you are ready.*"

(2) Precede the main clause: "*While you were in the city,* two men came to the house."

(3) Stand between the subject and the verb of the main clause: "This plan, *if it is successful,* will make him wealthy."

EXERCISE 34

Point out the adverbial clauses, tell the kind of relation that they express, and name the words that they modify:

1. John was disappointed because he did not win the prize. 2. While the audience was waiting for the speaker, the orchestra played patriotic airs. 3. The bills should be paid within thirty days if you wish to take advantage of the cash discount. 4. The soldiers looked as if they had just come from the trenches. 5. Since we left the north woods, there have been two destructive forest fires. 6. Since he would not surrender peaceably, the officers were compelled to take him by force. 7. The headlines were printed in red so that they might be easily seen. 8. The procession will start as soon as the signal is given. 9. When the sun

rose, we looked eagerly for a passing ship. 10. He walks as fast as his sister can run. 11. He was promoted to the rank of major, although he was only twenty-five years old. 12. That you may better understand the construction of the machine, we have added a diagram to our description. 13. Only a slight ripple of applause was heard when the orator finished his address. 14. He studied hard in order that he might pass the civil service examination. 15. This plan, if it is successful, will inject new life into the campaign. 16. Early the next morning we continued our journey, though it was still raining heavily. 17. The effort will fail unless the society receives more generous support than it has thus far had. 18. Strange though it may seem, no one had anticipated this turn of events, for the work had progressed so smoothly that we had become accustomed to thinking that there could be no interruptions. 19. I will do this, provided you indorse the note. 20. If we all contribute as generously as Mr. Brown has done, the amount will be subscribed before the meeting is adjourned. 21. Whatever the conditions are, he may be depended upon to do his best. 22. Wherever it is possible, the exact dimensions should be given. 23. We were certain that you would agree. 24. As his mother had not received a letter for a month, she was afraid that he had met with an accident. 25. The boy was so badly injured that he will not recover. 26. No matter what the penalty is, you must endure it. 27. As the article is very brief, you can read it in a few minutes.

EXERCISE 35

Write three sentences illustrating the use of adverbial clauses in each kind of relation. Wherever possible, use different conjunctions for the different sentences in each class.

SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVES

242. A Subordinate Clause is introduced by (a) a Subordinate Conjunction, (b) a Conjunctive Adverb, or (c) a Relative or an Interrogative Pronoun.

243. A **Subordinate Conjunction** is purely an introductory or connecting word. It introduces the subordinate clause, at

the same time connecting the latter with the main clause, and it has none of the functions of the other parts of speech:

She succeeded *because* she worked hard.
He will come *if* he is able.

(a) When an adverbial clause precedes the main clause, the conjunction is a connecting word even though it does not actually stand between the clauses. This position of the adverbial clause is a rhetorical device for varying the structure of a sentence, and does not affect the logical or grammatical relation between the clauses. All these subordinate clauses can be placed after the main clause as well as before it: for example, "*If you approve,* they will proceed," or "They will proceed *if you approve.*"

(b) In some instances, such as noun clauses used as subjects of verbs, the conjunction is chiefly an introductory word, having little if any of the function of a connective: thus, "*That* he will come is certain."

244. A **Conjunctive Adverb** combines the functions of both a connective and an adverb: as a connective it joins the subordinate clause with the main clause; as an adverb it modifies the verb in the subordinate clause. Thus in the sentence, "He told me *where I could find the manager,*" the conjunctive adverb *where* connects the two clauses and also serves as an adverb of place modifying the verb *could find.*

245. A **Relative** or an **Interrogative Pronoun** combines the functions of both a connective and a noun: it connects the subordinate clause with the main clause, and also serves in the subordinate clause as the subject or as the object of the verb, as the object of a preposition, or as a predicate noun (see Secs. 60–62).

A relative pronoun used as a pronominal adjective, is both a connective and an adjective: as, "I know *which* apple is the best."

246. Groups of Words Used as Connectives. Frequently a group of two or more words is used as a connective. In such instances the group is treated as if it were a single word. Examples are: *as if, as though, even if, so that, in order that.*

247. Correlative Subordinate Connectives. Sometimes in addition to the connective introducing the subordinate clause another one is placed before the main clause to emphasize the relation. These two words form a Correlative Connective. Examples are: *although—nevertheless; when—then; where—there; as—therefore:*

Although he is a small boy, *nevertheless* he is very strong.
When the president signs the bill, *then* it will become a law.
Where the soldier fell, *there* he lay motionless.

248. The Same Connective in Different Kinds of Clauses. Some connectives may introduce different kinds of clauses: noun, adjective, or adverbial. The connective is therefore not always a safe guide as to the kind of clause which follows it; that must be determined by the way in which the clause is used in the sentence. For example:

Where:
I know *where* the book belongs (noun clause—"I know *what?*").
This is the town *where* he was born (adjective clause—*which* town?).
He goes *where* he pleases (adverbial clause—"He goes *where?*").

That:
They said *that* they were satisfied (noun clause).
Here is the book *that* you wanted (adjective clause).
We were sorry *that* you were absent (adverbial clause).
Men study *that* they may know the truth (adverbial clause).

Note. In the second sentence *that* is a relative pronoun. In the others it is a conjunction (see Secs. 243, 245).

249. The connectives *how* and *why* deserve special atten-

tion. We have seen that an adverbial clause of manner answers the question *How?* and an adverbial clause of reason or purpose answers the question *Why?* Yet these two words, *as connectives,* are commonly used to introduce noun clauses, *not* adverbial clauses. They themselves are adverbs in relation to the verbs of their own clauses:

I know *how* you feel (I know *what?*).
He asked *why* you came (He asked *what?*).

Why sometimes introduces an adjective clause:

He suspected the reason *why* you left so early.

250. The Same Connective Expressing Different Adverbial Relations. Sometimes a connective is used to express different adverbial relations:

Since:
He has lived here *since* the war ended (time).
He must go, *since* the general commands it (reason).
As:
The work was done *as* you directed (manner).
I saw him *as* I was crossing the street (time).
He defied the law, *as* he believed it to be wrong (reason).

251. Connective Omitted before Subordinate Clauses. Sometimes the connective is omitted before a subordinate clause, when the omitted word may be easily understood or supplied by the reader or hearer. This practice is more common in speaking than in writing:

He said ∧ they would be late (*that* omitted).
This is the coat ∧ you selected (*which* or *that* omitted).
Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home (*though* omitted—"*Though* it be ever so humble").

CHAPTER X

SENTENCES

252. A sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought.

253. The elements that have been previously studied—parts of speech, phrases, and clauses—are only *parts of sentences.* When used by themselves, they do not express a complete thought, they do not make a statement. In order to do this, they must be combined according to definite grammatical principles, and the resulting combination is a sentence.

254. Sentences are divided, according to their construction, into three classes: (1) Simple Sentences, (2) Complex Sentences, (3) Compound Sentences. This classification is based on the number and character of the clauses contained in the sentence.

SIMPLE SENTENCES

255. A Simple Sentence is a sentence which contains only one group of words having a subject and a predicate.

The simple sentence, therefore, has only one subject and one predicate. The subject and the predicate may be simple, or either or both of them may be compound (see Secs. 275–6; 280–1):

John went to the office (simple subject, simple predicate).

The *guests came* early and *stayed* late (simple subject and compound predicate).

The *boy* and his *sister are* in town (compound subject, simple predicate).

Harry and *James went* to the factory and *asked* for work (compound subject, compound predicate).

The subject may therefore contain two or more nouns, and the predicate two or more verbs; but the nouns will form one connected group, and the verbs a connected group. In complex and compound sentences, which have more than one clause, there will be a separate subject group and a separate predicate group in each of the clauses.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

256. A Complex Sentence is a sentence which contains one main clause and one or more subordinate clauses:

The manager believed *that his decision was just.*

This book, *which was written by an eye-witness,* is authoritative.

Although he was wounded, he remained in the trenches.

257. Sentences having a noun clause as the subject of the main clause show a variation from the usual form of the complex sentence. They do not have two *separate, complete* clauses, for the noun clause is a part of the main clause, the latter being co-extensive with the entire sentence. They are, however, classed as complex sentences:

That he should fail seemed incredible.

Whatever you do will be satisfactory.

COMPOUND SENTENCES

258. A Compound Sentence is a sentence which contains two or more main clauses:

The signal was given, | and | *the steamer moved slowly from the dock.*

The tents were pitched, | *a fire was started,* | and | *our dinner was soon ready.*

259. A compound sentence may also contain one or more subordinate clauses, in addition to the main clauses:

The traveler registered *when he arrived at the hotel,* and then he was taken to his room, *which was on the fourth floor.*

Structurally, therefore, a compound sentence consists of two or more simple or complex sentences combined to form a single sentence.

VARIOUS COMBINATIONS OF CLAUSES

260. Thus far, only the simpler forms of complex and compound sentences have been discussed. Those described below show different combinations of clauses:

261. A series of two or more subordinate clauses is sometimes used in the same construction in a sentence:

The foreman reported *that* the necessary supplies had been procured, *that* the required number of workmen had been hired, and *that* work on the foundation would begin on the following day. (Three noun clauses—all objects of the verb *reported.*)

A man *who* is trustworthy and *who* has the proper training will advance rapidly in this firm. (Two adjective clauses modifying the same noun *man.*)

262. A compound sentence may contain three main clauses which fall into two groups: one group consisting of two clauses strictly co-ordinate with each other; and the other having a single clause co-ordinate with the combined group rather than with each of the two clauses separately:

The weather was cold *and* a heavy snow was falling; *therefore* we postponed our journey. (The two reasons are co-ordinate; the result is co-ordinate with the combined two.)

Our journey was interesting enough at first; *but* the scenery soon became monotonous *and* the torrid heat irritated us almost beyond endurance.

263. The following sentences show miscellaneous combinations of clauses:

(a) While I was waiting at the station, a man who had been talking with the agent told me that the train had been delayed by a wreck.

A man told me is the main clause.
Who had been talking with the agent is an adjective clause modifying the subject *man.*
That the train had been delayed by a wreck is a noun clause used as the direct object of the verb *told.*
While I was waiting at the station is an adverbial clause modifying the verb *told.*

(b) The fire which destroyed the building is said to have been set by a discharged employee while the watchman was absent from his post; but if this is the case, the officials who are investigating the affair cannot understand why the man did not select a more valuable part of the factory as the object of his revenge.

The fire is said to have been set by a discharged employee is the first main clause.
The officials cannot understand is the second main clause.
Which destroyed the building is an adjective clause modifying the noun *fire.*
While the watchman was absent from his post is an adverbial clause modifying the infinitive *to have been set.*
If this is the case is an adverbial clause modifying the verb *cannot understand.*
Who are investigating the affair is an adjective clause modifying the noun *officials.*
Why the man did not select a more valuable part of the factory as the object of his revenge is a noun clause used as the object of the verb *cannot understand.*

(Notice that the conjunction *but* does not connect the two adverbial clauses *while the watchman . . .* and *if this . . .*; it connects the two main clauses, *the fire is said to have been set by a discharged employee* and *the officials cannot understand.*)

EXERCISE 36

Tell whether the following sentences are simple, complex, or compound. Point out the main and subordinate clauses. Name the relationship existing between the main clauses (see Sec. 213) and tell how the subordinate clauses are used:

1. The party were weary, but they kept doggedly at their task. 2. Everyone who approves of the motion will please rise. 3. The field is already overcrowded; therefore we are advising all applicants to take up other lines of work. 4. What the result of the conference will be, is entirely a matter of conjecture; but the general opinion is that it will be impossible to reach a satisfactory compromise. 5. The principles which underlie the new movement are not generally understood. 6. He must obey when an officer gives a command, or he will be severely disciplined. 7. The society will hold its annual meeting next Monday evening at the Masonic Temple. 8. The superintendent suggests that all details be submitted to him for approval. 9. Having found a new outlet for his surplus energy, he seemed to be entirely contented. 10. By nature he is a dreamer; by training he has become a man of quick thought and decided action. 11. The shipment has not yet arrived; moreover, we have not had a reply to our last inquiry. 12. The people were disappointed, for they had expected to hear the governor himself. 13. Even great writers do not escape the necessity of revising their work: Macaulay, for instance, sometimes rewrote a chapter several times before he was satisfied with it. 14. The traveler was weary, and stopped to rest at a farm house standing near the main road. 15. The statement that all the resources of the firm have been pledged, is somewhat misleading. 16. When the returns were all in, we found that the Citizens' Ticket was elected. 17. The consultation was ended, but the committee still lingered, waiting to see what new situations would develop. 18. He is a habitual criminal: he has been twice imprisoned for burglary, and is now under indictment for murder. 19. These goods are fifty percent higher in price than they were two years ago. 20. Whoever believes in the theory that "might makes right," can justify almost any action which necessity seems to require. 21. Most of us expected that there would be some opposition when the amendment was proposed, but we were not prepared for the storm of protest which swept over the hall. 22. As we had not received a reply

to our telegram, we decided that there was no need of further delaying our trip, and we therefore prepared to take the next train, which would bring us to our destination early the next morning. 23. Election reforms, when they are really demanded by the mass of voters, will be made, even though they are opposed by the professional politicians. 24. Spanning the stream was a flimsy structure which was marked on the maps as a bridge but which proved to be wholly inadequate for the passage of even light artillery; consequently the advance was delayed until the engineers could make some other provision. 25. No man is wholly bad: there is said to be honor even among thieves. 26. The chairman and the speaker arrived at seven o'clock and immediately took their places on the platform. 27. Since his administration of the duties of office was not wholly satisfactory, he was asked to resign, and although he had some supporters among the directors, he was forced to comply with the demand. 28. His report, although it was somewhat indefinite, covered all the essential points in the case; therefore it was accepted and a committee was appointed to consider the reforms which it recommended. 29. The ships were in extreme peril, for the water was low and the only navigable channel ran very near the left bank where the enemy's mines were planted; nevertheless, the admiral ordered the ships to continue their advance as long as a vessel was left afloat. 30. Many inquiries having been received from persons interested in the work of the society, the directors have issued a small booklet describing in detail the plans for the coming year. 31. I found that my labor was of little avail, for as I had not had sufficient preparation, I was unable to make much progress in the work. 32. No matter how hard the workman tries, he is never able to satisfy this foreman. 33. The investigation showed that he was responsible for the failure of the campaign; that he deliberately put obstacles in the way of success; and that he even gave valuable information to the enemy. 34. The book will be sent free for a ten-day examination, and if at the end of that time you do not want to keep it, you may return it at our expense. 35. Whatever excuse is given for the failure, the fact remains that the company cannot entirely escape the blame for the outcome. 36. Although we seldom follow advice, we are willing enough to ask for it when we are in trouble. 37. Where you go, I will go; where you live, I will live. 38. The army officers insist that whatever defects there may have been in our camps here at home, we have sent troops to the other side as rapidly as

they could be transported, and that they have lacked nothing in arms, equipment, and food supplies.

DECLARATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, IMPERATIVE, AND EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES

264. Sentences may be divided into four classes according to the manner in which the thought is expressed: (1) Declarative Sentences, (2) Interrogative Sentences, (3) Imperative Sentences, (4) Exclamatory Sentences.

265. A **Declarative Sentence** is one which states something as a fact. It is punctuated with a period:

The message was written last Monday.
He hopes to be here for the meeting.

266. An **Interrogative Sentence** is one which asks a question. It is punctuated with an interrogation point (question mark):

Will you see him today?
Can you go with us?

267. An **Imperative Sentence** is one which expresses a command or an entreaty. It is punctuated with a period:

Come at six o'clock.
Let us start immediately.

268. An **Exclamatory Sentence** is one which expresses strong feeling or emotion, as delight, fear, or surprise. It is punctuated with an exclamation point:

How beautiful the evening is!
What a time we had!

269. Variations in Form. The examples just given show the typical forms of sentences used in stating a fact, asking a question, giving a command, and expressing strong emotion, respectively. There are, however, a number of variations from these forms:

270. A question may be asked in a sentence having the form or word order of a declarative sentence, the interrogative meaning being indicated by an interrogation point:

You believe this report? (instead of "Do you believe this report?").
The note was forged, you say?

271. A command may be expressed:

(1) In the form of a question:

Will you please send your check at once.

Sentences of this sort obviously express a command or positive request, and not a mere inquiry. The interrogation point is sometimes used at the end, but the period is often preferable.

(2) In the form of a declarative sentence:

You will please report for duty on Tuesday.

(3) In the form of a combined command and question:

Come at once, won't you?

These forms are used when a writer or speaker wishes to soften a command or express it more politely than the usual type of imperative sentence permits.

272. An exclamation may be expressed:

(1) In the form of a question:

Who would have thought it possible!

(2) In the form of a declarative sentence:

The idea is simply preposterous!

(3) In the form of a command:

Don't hesitate! Go at once!

In these sentences the strong feeling is indicated by the exclamation point in writing, and by stress of voice in speaking.

CHAPTER XI

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

273. In order to make an assertion two elements are necessary: something to talk about, and something to say about that thing. In a sentence the first element is represented by the subject, the second one by the predicate. Every sentence, therefore, must have a subject and a predicate.

THE SUBJECT

274. The subject of a sentence may be Simple or Compound.

275. Simple Subject. The Simple Subject consists of a single noun or pronoun (or a substitute construction) without any modifiers or other adjuncts.

Thus in the sentence, "*Dogs* are faithful animals," the simple subject is *dogs;* in the sentence, "The first *visitor* from Boston has arrived," the simple subject is *visitor.*

Instead of an ordinary noun or pronoun, any of the following constructions may be used as the simple subject:

(1) An Adjective: "The *poor* are always with us."

(2) A Gerund, or Verbal Noun ending in *-ing:* "*Skating* is healthful exercise."

(3) An Infinitive: "*To err* is human."

(4) A Phrase: "*Writing a letter* will require some time."

(5) A Clause: "*That he will go* is certain."

(6) Any part of speech when it is spoken of as a *word,* not as the name of something: *"Was* is a verb."

Note. The bare skeleton of a phrase or clause, without any modifiers, is the simple subject: as, *"To find* the best *methods* of doing the work | is their problem." *"That some* of us *will go* after dinner | is certain." (The simple subjects are indicated by italics.)

276. Compound Subject. A Compound Subject consists of two or more simple subjects. These simple subjects are usually, but not necessarily, connected by conjunctions.

Thus in the sentence, "The *horses* and *sheep* were sold," the compound subject is *horses* and *sheep.*

277. Adjuncts of the Simple or Compound Subject. The simple or the compound subject may be modified or amplified by various adjuncts. The combined group is called the **Complete Subject:**

The honest man who does his work well will succeed.

278. The principal adjuncts which are thus used are:

(1) An Adjective: "The *beautiful* flowers have faded."

(2) A Noun in Apposition: "My dog, *Rover,* is lost."

(3) A Noun in the Possessive Case: *"John's* book is the best."

(4) A Phrase: "The sleeve *of the coat* is torn." "The man *crossing the street* is the judge." "His desire *to own the horse* was obvious."

(5) A Clause: "The official *who was responsible* has been indicted."

(6) Any of the adjuncts of infinitives and gerunds (see Sec. 196), when the simple subject is one of these constructions.

(7) Any adjunct belonging to any of the six preceding classes of adjuncts.

For instance, an adjective modifying the simple subject may

in turn be modified by an adverb—"An *exceedingly* severe storm had risen"; a participle modifying the simple subject may be modified by an adverbial phrase or clause—"A man living *where the winters are long* becomes accustomed to the cold weather"; or a noun used as the adjunct of the simple subject may have any of the ordinary adjuncts of a noun.

Note. A careful distinction should be made between an adjective, a phrase, or a clause used instead of a noun to form the simple subject, and the same construction used as an adjunct of the simple subject.

EXERCISE 37

In each of the following sentences, point out the simple or compound subject, and the complete subject; then name the adjuncts which help to form the complete subject, and give their use:

1. A large standing army is not a guarantee of peace. 2. Citizens of a free country are indeed fortunate. 3. The districts lying along the river were flooded when the levee broke. 4. Powell's treatise on the tariff is a standard work. 5. Someone who is more familiar with the work should be appointed. 6. To be weak in the face of difficulty means failure. 7. Writing the letter required only a minute. 8. The most important problem to be solved is the one relating to transportation. 9. The passengers and crew of the sinking vessel were taken on board the cruiser. 10. Living in the country during the winter is not an unmixed pleasure. 11. Books, magazines, and newspapers addressed to the soldiers in France will be forwarded free of charge. 12. Whatever you send will be gratefully received. 13. This book, written by a former minister to Spain, contains an interesting account of life in the remote mountain districts. 14. Being thrifty does not mean refraining from all pleasure in order to save money.

THE PREDICATE

279. The main word, or nucleus, of the predicate is a verb. The predicate may be either Simple or Compound.

280. Simple Predicate. The Simple Predicate consists of

a single verb, like *walk,* or a single verb-phrase, like *have walked:*

I *walk.*
We *have walked* to town.

281. Compound Predicate. The Compound Predicate consists of two or more simple predicates, usually connected by conjunctions:

The girls *read* and *knit.*
He *went* to the office and *wrote* some letters.

282. Adjuncts of the Simple or Compound Predicate. The simple or compound predicate may be modified or amplified by various adjuncts. The combined group is called the **Complete Predicate.**

283. The principal adjuncts which may be thus used are: (1) A Predicate Noun or Adjective: "The man is a *lawyer.*" "His father is *wealthy.*"

Note. A predicate noun or a predicate adjective actually belongs to the subject, but since its position is after the verb, in the *predicate,* it is regarded as an adjunct of the verb.

(2) A Noun or Pronoun used as a Direct Object: "The clerk submitted his *report.*"

(3) A Noun or Pronoun used as an Indirect Object: "They gave the *officer* a medal."

(4) An Objective Complement—either a noun or an adjective: "They made him a *major.*" "They painted the house *white.*"

(5) A Noun in Apposition: "We met General Pershing, the *commander* of the army."

(6) An Adverb: "He worked *silently.*"

(7) An Adverbial or Noun Phrase: "They came *from California.*" "John went *to buy a book.*" "I expect *to send a telegram.*"

(8) An Adverbial or Noun Clause: "The regiment surrendered *because it was outnumbered.*" "He said *that he would go.*"

(9) Any adjunct of any of the preceding adjuncts. These may include practically any part of speech.

EXERCISE 38

Point out the simple or compound predicate, and the complete predicate, in each of the following sentences; then name the adjuncts which help to form the complete predicate and tell how each is used:

1. They saw Mr. Drew, the English writer, at the president's reception. 2. Her husband is the commander of one of the new merchant vessels. 3. The local chapter of the electrical engineering society has made the distinguished visitor an honorary member. 4. The day drew swiftly to a close. 5. The survivors could not tell us what had caused the accident. 6. A flag, hung from the topmost window, flapped idly in the breeze. 7. The representatives of the Infant Welfare Society found many families suffering from the lack of food and fuel. 8. His favorite amusement is fishing for the elusive trout that lurks in the mountain streams. 9. The man on horseback dismounted quickly and hurried into the office to send a telegram. 10. This society has, during the past year, given aid to over five hundred families. 11. My proposition was that the discussion should be postponed until the next meeting. 12. He will surely come if he gets your message. 13. A small boy found the pocketbook in the outer office and handed it to the cashier. 14. The engine coughed apologetically once or twice, made a few feeble efforts, and finally gave up the attempt.

POSITION OF THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

284. Normal Position. In the normal arrangement of a sentence, the subject with its adjuncts is placed first and the verb or predicate with its adjuncts follows it. With

this arrangement a line drawn between them will make two separate and complete groups. For example:

The building which we finally decided to lease | had been built for use as a hotel during the World's Fair.

285. Variations from the Normal Arrangement. Frequently—for emphasis, variety in structure, or other reasons—this normal arrangement is changed, either by reversing the order of the groups as a whole, or by giving a special position to some of the adjuncts.

(1) The predicate and all its adjuncts may precede the subject:

Here comes the officer!
Swiftly and smoothly flows the river.

(2) The object may precede the subject:

These mistakes you must avoid.
What his ambition is, everybody in the city knows.

(3) An adverbial element modifying the verb may be placed at the beginning of the sentence; this element may be a single adverb, a phrase, or a clause:

Silently they laid him to rest.
At ten o'clock the president and his cabinet entered the room.
When we arrived at the hotel, our party, consisting of ten people, found that no accommodations were available.

Note. In questions the verb or part of the verb-phrase regularly precedes the subject (see Secs. 122 ff):

Can you come?

286. Introductory *It* and *There*. Sometimes a special type of arrangement is secured by the use of an introductory *it* or *there:*

It was true *that he had failed.*
It is gratifying *to see so many people here.*
There are two *men* in the room.
There will be a noted *speaker* at the meeting.

The subjects of the verbs are the italicized expressions, as may be seen from the following rearrangement of the sentences, in which the *it* and *there* have been omitted without making any change in the meaning:

That he had failed was true.
To see so many people here is gratifying.
Two *men* are in the room.
A noted *speaker* will be at the meeting.

287. *In the original sentences, the "it" and "there" are rhetorical devices used to allow the subjects to be placed after the verbs; in parsing they are to be called merely "introductory words" or "expletives"* (the word "expletive" means a "filler").

Note 1. In sentences of this type beginning with *it,* the *it* is in an appositive relation with the phrase or clause which follows the verb: for example, *"It* (namely, *that he had failed*) is true." *It* might, therefore, be regarded as the subject; but since this introductory word is colorless by itself, and gets its meaning from the phrase or clause, the latter is more properly called the subject.

There, on the other hand, has none of the nature of a subject; it is purely an introductory word.

Note 2. In some instances it is not possible to omit the *it* or *there* and rearrange the rest of the sentence so as to make a good grammatical construction. Thus, the sentence, "There will be a place for everyone," cannot be changed to read, "A place for everyone will be," or "A place will be for everyone." The introductory word is necessary in a case of this sort, but it is not the subject: that follows the verb just as it does in the sentences previously given.

Note 3. It always requires a singular verb. *There* may be followed by a singular or a plural verb: singular if the subject is singular; plural if the subject is plural:

It *is* certain *that the criminal will be arrested* (single clause as subject).
It *is* true *that his condition is serious and that some remedy must be found at once* (two clauses as subject).
There *is* one *book* on the table (singular subject).
There *are* two *books* on the table (plural subject).

EXERCISE 39

Point out the subjects and predicates—simple, compound, and complete; name the phrases and clauses used as adjuncts, and tell how they are used:

1. Wearily the procession continued its march to the place where it was to disband. 2. Even more important is the question of housing the employees. 3. The commander, seeing the folly of further resistance, agreed to surrender. 4. It soon became evident to the leaders that the crisis had passed. 5. In this city may be found representatives of almost every civilized race of people. 6. His latest book you have all read and enjoyed. 7. The prisoner, who had been sullen ever since we began the journey, now showed signs of open rebellion. 8. Following the first company of soldiers came the wagons carrying the supplies. 9. There were five letters on the desk when I arrived at the office. 10. If we want to be there in time, we must hurry. 11. Whatever success he has had is due to the fact that he is honest and industrious. 12. The storm having ceased, the travelers proceeded on their journey. 13. To follow the trail in the dark required no little care and skill, for it was almost overgrown with grass and weeds. 14. A copy of the address, bound in vellum, was presented to each of the party. 15. It is difficult to give a satisfactory account of this event. 16. There are two ways of solving the problem which I gave you. 17. There we found a delegation of business men waiting to welcome us. 18. Without waiting for a reply, the man seated at the desk rose and quickly left the room. 19. To insure prompt delivery, it is advisable to send your order early. 20. We rode for miles through level plains covered with fields of wheat, and then began slowly to ascend the slope of the foothills.

CHAPTER XII

SOME IRREGULAR CONSTRUCTIONS

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

288. An Elliptical Sentence is one which is incomplete because of the omission of some part or parts.

This type of sentence is used under certain circumstances when the omitted part may be readily supplied from the context.

As the result of ellipsis, a sentence may be without an expressed subject or verb, and often a short phrase or even a single word may stand for a complete statement.

289. Ellipsis may occur in a simple sentence, in a main or subordinate clause, or in a phrase. The following examples are typical:

290. Simple Sentences.

(1) Exclamations:

Shame on you! (May shame be on you!)
Welcome to our city! (You are welcome to our city.)
Success to you! (I wish success to you.)
Away with your foolishness! (Go away with your foolishness.)
Nonsense! (That is nonsense.)

(2) Commands or requests:

Come here. (You come here.)
Less noise, please. (Let us have less noise, please.)
Some more coffee, please. (Give me some more coffee, please.)

(3) Questions:

All ready? (Are you all ready?)
Why such haste? (Why are you in such haste?)
Why write at all? (Why do you write at all?)
You here so late? (Are you here so late?)
Well, what of that? (Well, what is the significance of that?)
He will not come. *Why?* (Why will he not come?)
Did you see that man? *Which one?* (Which one do you mean?)

(4) Statements in answer to a question:

Who brought the message? *John.* (John brought the message.)
When did you come? *Yesterday.* (I came yesterday.)
Did you find it? *Of course.* (Of course, I found it.)

291. Main Clauses in Compound and Complex Sentences.

A few more days, and the convention will close (a few more days will pass).
Mr. Smith is a lawyer; *his son, a physician* (his son is a physician).
What if they refuse? (What will you do if they refuse?)
If he would only come! (If he would only come, I should be content.)

292. Subordinate Clauses.

If necessary, we can go at once (if it is necessary).
When last seen, John wore a gray hat (when he was last seen).
While fighting in France, he was seriously wounded (while he was fighting in France).
The book is interesting, *though rather brief* (though it is rather brief).
He worked harder *than usual* (than it was usual for him to work).
He is as old *as Harry* (as Harry is old).
They like him better *than her* (than they like her).
You may give it to *whomever you wish* (whomever you wish to give it to).

The game will be played, *rain or shine* (if it rain or if it shine—subjunctive forms of the verbs—see Sec. 134).

He thought you would be there (the conjunction *that* is omitted).

This is the boy they sent (the relative pronoun *whom* (or *that*) is omitted).

293. Phrases.

(1) Participle omitted in a Nominative Absolute Construction:

Breakfast over, we hurried to the station (breakfast being over).

(2) Preposition omitted:

He sat quietly, *every sense alert for danger* (with every sense alert for danger).

Note. This sentence may be regarded as showing the omission of a participle instead of a preposition: *"Keeping* every sense alert for danger."

(3) Object of a preposition omitted after a noun or pronoun in the possessive case:

He is living *at his brother's* (at his brother's house).

I traded my book *for his* (for his book).

Note. A similar omission of a noun after a possessive case occurs also in other constructions: *"His* is the best book."

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

294. An Independent Element is one which is without grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence.

These elements are related in *thought,* but they are not connected with the context in accordance with the principles of *grammatical* relation which govern the use of other constructions in the sentence.

295. The chief forms of Independent Elements are Interjections, Parenthetical Expressions, and Independent Adverbs.

296. Interjections. These usually express surprise, or some other emotion:

Oh, I have been in the office all day.
Ah, is that so?
Oh yes! that is the usual answer.
His father, *alas,* is no better.
There! that finishes my part of the work.
Why! I didn't know that he had gone.
Nonsense! he won't hurt you.
Handsome! you surely don't consider him handsome!

297. Parenthetical Expressions. These range in nature from short phrases which have a comparatively close connection in thought with the rest of the sentence, to complete statements thrown into the sentence as "asides" or afterthoughts:

This book, *in my opinion,* is the best of his works.
To be perfectly frank, I do not approve of his methods.
His name, *by the way,* is the same as yours.
Their opinion, *it seems to me,* is not worth consideration.
A considerable number of signatures—*say fifty*—must first be secured.
That man—*I hope that you will tell him what I say*—is a scoundrel.

298. Independent Adverbs. These adverbs modify the thought of an entire sentence, rather than any single word in it, and also serve as a sort of connective with the preceding sentence:

Fortunately, we were able to secure a week's supply of food.
This decision, *unfortunately,* was made too late.
Certainly, I shall be glad to go.
Happily, no one was injured.

PART TWO

CHAPTER XIII

NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

USES

299. The principal uses of nouns and pronouns are as follows (see Secs. 17 ff):

Subject of a verb	Object of a preposition
Predicate noun	In direct address
Direct object of a verb	Absolutely with a participle
Indirect object of a verb	In apposition with another noun

An Objective Complement may be either a noun or an adjective (see Secs. 24, 93).

Cognate Object

300. Some intransitive verbs may take what is known as a Cognate Object, which expresses an idea similar to that of the verb:

They died a horrible *death*.
She lived a *life* of ease.
He smiled a happy *smile*.

Retained Object

301. A verb in the passive voice may be followed by what is known as a Retained Object:

He was granted a *furlough* by his superior.
The buyer was allowed a *discount* of two per cent.

302. Either a direct or an indirect object of a verb in the active voice may remain as the retained object when the verb is changed to the passive voice. Thus the sentence, "The citizens gave the *soldiers* a hearty *welcome*," which has the verb in the active voice, may be expressed in the passive voice as follows:

The soldiers were given a hearty *welcome* by the citizens.
(The direct object remains as the retained object.)
A hearty welcome was given the *soldiers* by the citizens.
(The indirect object remains as the retained object.)

303. A clause or an infinitive phrase may be used as a retained object:

They were told *that the letter had arrived.*
He was commanded *to appear in court.*

With the verbs in the active voice, these sentences would read:

We told *them that the letter had arrived.*
The judge commanded *him to appear in court.*

Reciprocal Pronouns

304. *Each other* and *one another* are called Reciprocal Pronouns. They represent two or more persons or things as interacting:

They admired *each other.*
They saw *one another* frequently.

In these constructions a peculiar combination of subject and object exists. Thus, in the first sentence, *they* appears to be the subject of the verb, and *each other* appears to be the direct object. Actually, however, *they* includes both *each* and *other; each* is the logical subject; *other* is the logical object; and *they* is a sort of expletive or "filler." Reconstructed from this point of view, the sentence would read, "*Each* admired the *other.*"

Special Forms of Apposition

For the ordinary forms see Sec. 23.

305. Introduced by *Namely*, etc. A noun in apposition may be introduced by *that is, namely, or, for example,* and *such as:*

The chief magistrate, *that is, the president,* will not be present.
Two officials—*namely, the president and the secretary*—have been indicted.
A small quantity of sodium chloride, *or common salt,* should then be added.
Some nations—*for example, France*—have become republics.
Certain commodities, *such as flour and sugar,* have become cheaper.

A noun introduced by *for example* and *such as* is not a complete appositive, for it represents only a part of the idea expressed by the preceding noun: thus, in the next to the last sentence, *France* is only one of the *nations.*

306. Introduced by *As*. *As* may be used to introduce a certain sort of appositive which also has some adverbial meaning:

I have never thought much of him *as a writer.*
Algebra, *as a study,* is very interesting.
You, *as a stockholder,* must do your part.

In the first sentence, *writer* is in a sort of apposition with *him,* but *as a writer* also performs some of the function of an adverb: it indicates in what manner or in what respect I think of him. In the third sentence, *as a stockholder* carries some of the idea of reason that is conveyed by "You must do your part *because you are a stockholder.*"

(a) A peculiar variant of this construction has the second noun in apposition with another noun or pronoun in the possessive case:

John's record as a *soldier* was excellent.

Two nouns in apposition are regularly in the same case; hence a more regular construction would be "the record of John as a soldier." However, the form given above is a recognized idiom.

Note. In expressions like "his *sister Mary's* hat," which have different case forms for the nouns in apposition, the two nouns may be regarded as forming a single name, with the sign of the possessive added to the second part.

307. Introduced by *Of*. Certain nouns form an appositive by means of the preposition *of*, the appositive being the object of the preposition:

Examples: City of Chicago, state of Illinois, county of Cook, republic of France, the play of *Macbeth*, a feeling of shame, a sense of honor, the title of president, the firm of Jones & Smith.

308. A Clause or a Phrase. (1) A noun may be used in apposition with a clause:

The building was dingy and dilapidated, a *condition* which made a thorough overhauling necessary.

Here the general idea of the main clause is summed up in a single noun, which furnishes a definite antecedent for the following relative pronoun. This construction is used to avoid a loose reference between a relative pronoun and a clause-antecedent (see Sec. 56, *note*).

(2) A noun clause or phrase may be used in apposition with a noun:

The statement *that the city was destroyed* proved to be false.
The first proposal, *to send the canoe by freight*, was accepted.
He enjoys his work, *selling bonds*.

309. Separated from Its Noun. A noun in apposition is not always placed immediately after the noun with which it belongs:

The *castle* stood on a high cliff, a crumbling *relic* of former grandeur (*relic* is in apposition with *castle*).

He sat at the head of the table, a well-preserved *man* of eighty years.

Objective Complement

For a preliminary discussion, see Sec. 24.

310. A pronoun may be used as an objective complement:

He did call me *that.*
You named him *what?*

311. A phrase or a clause may be used as an objective complement:

They took him *for a gentleman.*
You may call me *what you will.*

For adjectives used as objective complements, see Sec. 93.

312. An objective complement is sometimes introduced by *as:*

They selected him *as captain.*
They elected me *as their secretary.*
He chose a lawyer *as his representative.*

In these constructions *as* seems to be little more than an introductory word whose only function is to make a smooth transition to the objective complement. It is used especially when the complement is preceded by a modifier: "They elected me as *their* secretary." Compare this sentence with "They elected me secretary," in which there is no modifier and *as* is omitted.

313. An objective complement with the introductory *as* is sometimes related in meaning to an elliptical adverbial clause:

They regarded him *as* an honest *man.*

This sentence is similar in meaning to "They regarded him as (they would regard) an honest man" (adverb of manner), but if we compare the elliptical construction with

"They *considered* him an honest *man*," we see its relation to an objective complement. The use of *as* after *regarded* and its omission after *considered* seem to be due to the nature or sound of the verb. In some cases it is difficult, and even impossible, to make a sharp distinction between an objective complement and an adverbial element.

Note. In "We considered him *to be an honest man*," the infinitive phrase is equivalent to an objective complement introduced by *to be*. It may be classified as such, or the whole expression "him to be an honest man" may be regarded as an infinitive phrase with a subject, used as the direct object of the verb (see Sec. 205). With the regular objective complement the *to be*, which serves as a test for the construction (see Sec. 24), is not expressed.

That, Which, and *Who*

For the use of these three relative pronouns with personal or non-personal antecedents, see Sec. 65. The following distinction should also be noted:

314. *That* is used only in restrictive relative clauses; *who* and *which* may be used in either restrictive or non-restrictive clauses:

The man *that* (or *who*) received the most votes was ineligible.
Any house *that* (or *which*) is burned will be rebuilt.
Chicago, *which* (not *that*) is the metropolis of the Middle West, is a great industrial center.
My father, *who* (not *that*) was president of the company, met us at the office.

A restrictive clause is one which points out what person or thing is meant: that is, it restricts the statement to that person or thing. It cannot be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence (see the first two sentences above).

A non-restrictive clause is descriptive or explanatory, and can be omitted without changing the essential meaning. The person or thing that is spoken of is definitely indicated without the clause (see the last two sentences).

Note. A restrictive clause is not punctuated; a non-restrictive clause is set off with commas.

NOUNS USED AS ADJECTIVES AND AS ADVERBS

315. A noun, equivalent to a prepositional phrase, may serve as an adjective in certain idiomatic expressions:

The shoes are a *size* too large (of a size).
These two coats are the same *price*.
The rope is just the right *length*.
Her cheeks are the *color* of roses.

These are elliptical constructions in which the preposition *of* is omitted. They should be used with discretion, for they are sometimes awkward and ambiguous. For example, a sentence like "The frame is *wood;* the cylinder is *steel*" should be avoided. It should read, "The frame is *of wood;* the cylinder is *of steel*." Ordinarily, when a noun follows a form of *be,* it is a predicate noun ("The man is a soldier"); hence the writer should be careful not to omit *of* if its object might be mistaken for a predicate noun.

For common uses of nouns and pronouns as adjectives, see Secs. 86, 87.

316. A noun used as an adverb (see Sec. 28 (1)) may modify a real adverb or an adjective:

He ran a *mile* farther (modifies the adverb *farther*).
They left *two weeks* earlier.
It weighed *five pounds* more.
These shoes are worth *six dollars* (*worth* is an adjective).
It is a *foot* longer.

CONSTRUCTIONS USED AS NOUNS OR PRONOUNS

317. In addition to regular nouns and pronouns the following constructions are commonly used as noun-equivalents:

1. Gerund (Verbal Noun in *-ing*) and Gerundive Phrase (see Secs. 166, 201): "He enjoys *swimming*." "He objected to *writing the letter*."

2. Infinitive and Infinitive Phrase (see Secs. 154, 198): "They promised *to come*." "*To work the problem* will require an hour."

3. Clause (see Sec. 227): "*What you say* may be true."

4. Adjective (see Sec. 180): "The *weakest* are sometimes the *strongest*."

5. Adverb (see Sec. 180): "Where do we go from *here?*"

6. Any word used as the name of a word, not as the name of an object (see Sec. 27): "*From* is a preposition."

318. *As.* *As* may be used as a relative pronoun after *such* and *same:*

Such of the neighbors *as* were invited came early. (Cf. "Those of the neighbors *who* were invited.")
Such papers *as* these (are) must be destroyed.
Such a record *as* this (is) should not be forgotten.
His answer *is* the same *as* yours (is).

Note. In constructions like "Such papers *as* these (are) must be destroyed," the relative clause introduced by *as* is somewhat similar in meaning to an adverbial clause modifying the adjective *such.* Historically, however, it is a relative clause. In older English, *as* was used as a relative in constructions where the adverbial meaning was not present at all: for example, "Those *as* were present."

319. After *same,* the relative pronoun *that* is sometimes used instead of *as:*

We followed the same trail *that* the Indians formerly used.
He has the same position *that* he had last year.

When the verb of the clause is not expressed, *as* must be used; when the verb is expressed, the choice between *as* and *that* depends largely upon which one makes the better sounding combination.

320. A special use of *as* as a relative pronoun is shown in the following sentences. In some cases the relative clause

is so common and colorless that it might be classified as a parenthetical expression (see Sec. 297):

The plan was impractical, *as the speaker proceeded to demonstrate.*
He was, *as you know,* a companion of the prince.
However, he was right, *as later developments proved.*
As is well known, this is an age of opportunity.
As has already been stated, his return was the signal for a revolt.
As predicted, the parade was a success (elliptical—"as was predicted").

In these constructions *as* generally refers to the whole preceding statement instead of to a definite word antecedent, just as *which* is used by some writers to refer to a whole clause (see Sec. 56, *note*). Thus the first sentence given above is equivalent to "The plan was impractical, *which* (*a fact which*) the speaker proceeded to demonstrate." The second sentence means "He was a companion of the prince, *which* (*a fact which*) you know."

321. *But.* *But,* when used as in the following sentence, is sometimes regarded as a relative pronoun, equivalent to *that—not, which—not,* or *who—not:*

There is not a city *but* is affected by this law (*that* is *not* affected).

Some grammarians call *but* in this construction a conjunction introducing a clause whose subject is not expressed: thus, "There is not a city *but* (it) is affected by this law."

322. *How* Plus an Infinitive. *How, when, where, whether, what,* or *who,* followed by an infinitive, is used as a noun-equivalent (see Sec. 431):

He did not know *how to write his name* (object of the verb).
We have not decided *whether to go or stay.*
The problem of *how to get food* was a serious one (object of *of*.)
Where to go was the next question (subject of the verb).

323. *For* Plus an Infinitive. A construction consisting of the preposition *for* followed by an infinitive with a subject may be used as a noun equivalent (see Sec. 207):

For him to do that was foolish (subject of the verb).
He said *for you to bring the book* (object of the verb).

GENDER

For a previous discussion of Gender, see Secs. 7, 8.

324. The Masculine and Feminine Genders are distinguished:

(1) By the use of different words: as, *king, queen; gentleman, lady; boy, girl; uncle, aunt.*

(2) By the use of suffixes:

a. The more common suffixes added to the masculine form to make a feminine form are *-ess, -ix, -ine:* as, *host, hostess; count, countess; lion, lioness; actor, actress; executor, executrix; hero, heroine.*

b. In the group *widow, widower,* the suffix *-er* is added to the feminine noun to make the masculine form.

c. Some words borrowed from foreign languages retain their original suffixes denoting the masculine and feminine genders: as, *alumnus, alumna,* (plural, *alumni, alumnæ*); *Augustus, Augusta; Julius, Julia.*

(3) By the placing of a distinguishing word (masculine or feminine) either before or after another word: as, *man-servant, maid-servant; he-goat, she-goat; billy-goat, nanny-goat; foreman, forewoman; landlord, landlady.*

325. With some words, the masculine form is used, like the common gender, for both masculine and feminine nouns: thus *alumni* (strictly a masculine form) may mean both men and women graduates; *poet* and *editor* are preferred to *poetess* and *editress.*

FORMS FOR THE PLURAL NUMBER

See also Sec. 6.

326. The plural number of most nouns is formed by adding *-s* or *-es* to the singular: as, *park, parks; book, books; porch, porches; box, boxes.*

(1) Some nouns ending in *f* in the singular change the *f* to *v* before adding *-es:* as, *loaf, loaves; calf, calves.* Not all nouns ending in *f,* however, do this: as, *brief, briefs; roof, roofs.*

(2) Most nouns ending in *y,* preceded by a consonant, change the *y* to *i* before adding *-es:* as, *lady, ladies; pony, ponies; penny, pennies.* (The *y* is not changed to *i,* if it is preceded by a vowel: as, *valleys, moneys.*)

Proper names usually retain the *y:* the *Harrys,* the *Derbys,* the *Marys.*

327. Other methods of forming the plural are:

(1) By adding *-en:* as, *ox, oxen; child, children; brother, brethren* (more commonly *brothers*). In some cases, the vowel is also changed.

(2) By changing the vowel, without adding anything to the singular: as, *man, men; goose, geese; mouse, mice.*

(3) Some foreign nouns taken over into English retain their original foreign plurals: as, *memorandum, memoranda; phenomenon, phenomena; alumnus, alumni; formula, formulæ; vortex, vortices.* In some instances nouns of this class also have a plural in *-s:* as, *memorandums, formulas.*

(4) In compound nouns the sign of the plural is given to the last member or to the most important member; sometimes to both: as, *spoonfuls, forget-me-nots; editors-in-chief; brothers-in-law; menservants; Knights Templars.*

(5) The plurals of letters, signs, and names of words add

's: as, "There are two *t's* in the word." "Your +*'s* are too small." "Find all the *that's* in the sentence."

CASE

328. The principal regular uses of cases with nouns and pronouns are as follows (the word *noun,* as employed here, includes *pronoun*):

(1) The **Nominative Case** is used in the Subject of a Verb, a Predicate Noun, a word in Direct Address, and a noun in the Nominative Absolute construction (see Sec. 41).

(2) The **Objective Case** is used in the Direct Object of a Verb, the Indirect Object of a Verb, the Object of a Preposition, and a noun employed as an Objective Complement (see Sec. 42).

(3) A noun in Apposition has the same case as the noun with which it is used.

(4) The **Possessive Case** denotes possession (see Secs. 13 f. and 43).

Special or exceptional uses of cases are given below.

329. Subject of an Infinitive. The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case (see Sec. 208):

I believe *them* to be trustworthy.
I saw *him* go.
Let *me* go.

After some verbs, as in the last two examples, the *to* of the infinitive is not expressed. These sentences are equivalent to "I saw him (*to*) go," "Let me (*to*) go." With the last one compare "Allow me *to* go."

330. The colloquial *let's* in expressions like *"Let's* do it now," is a contraction of *let us,* in which *us* is the subject of the following infinitive. In *"Let's you and me* do it," *you* and *me* are in apposition with *us* ("Let *us, you and me,* do it.") They are in the objective case to agree with the case

of *us;* hence the form "Let's you and *I* do it," which is frequently heard, is incorrect.

331. Predicate Noun after an Infinitive. A predicate noun is in the objective case after an infinitive which has a subject in the objective case (see Sec. 209):

I took him to be *her.*
We believed the traveler to be *him.*

332. In Exclamations. The nominative, objective, and possessive cases are all used in exclamations:

I! I don't care!
Dear *me!*
My! What a large hat!

333. Elliptical Constructions. The possessive case of a noun or pronoun sometimes appears to be used—instead of the nominative or objective case—for the subject of a verb, a predicate noun, an object of a verb, or an object of a preposition:

Harry's is the better coat (Harry's coat is the better coat).
That book is my *father's* (my father's book).
I lost my hat, but John gave me *his* (his hat).
Come to the *photographer's* at noon (photographer's studio).
You can buy it at your *grocer's* (grocer's store).

These are elliptical constructions. The real subjects, predicate nouns, and objects are the nouns which have been omitted after the possessives. Thus, in the first sentence, *coat* ("understood") is the subject of the verb; in the third, *hat* is the object of the verb; etc. The possessives merely "stand for" the omitted words.

334. The following sentences show not only ellipsis, as described above, but also the substitution of one form of the pronoun for another:

Mine is the larger apple.
Give him *yours.*

Thus the first sentence is equivalent to "*My apple* is the larger apple." The subject *apple* has been omitted, and for *my* has been substituted the form *mine,* which is the one regularly used when the possessive case is not followed by a noun (see Sec. 43).

335. The Double Possessive. In the so-called Double Possessive the idea of possession is expressed both by the preposition *of* and by a noun or pronoun in the possessive case used as the object of the preposition:

He is a friend of *mine.*
This is a favorite horse of my *father's.*

This construction is a well-established idiom.

AGREEMENT OF THE PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT

336. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender (see Sec. 45).

337. *Everybody, Each.* A singular pronoun is used with an antecedent consisting of the pronouns *everybody, each, anybody, somebody, neither, either,* or a word or series of words preceded by the adjectives *every, each, any, neither,* or *either:*

Everybody must do *his* duty (not *their* duty).
Each is in *its* place.
Somebody has lost *his* hat.
Neither of the girls has *her* lesson.
Every man and boy must do *his* part.
Each girl will bring *her* knitting.
Neither person will give up *his* share.

338. This rule offers no difficulties when the group indicated by the antecedent consists of males only or females only, for then the pronoun will be masculine or feminine, respectively:

Everybody (at the Masonic lodge) took *his* seat.
Everybody (at the sewing circle) took *her* seat.

339. When the antecedent refers to a mixed group, males and females, it is customary to use the masculine pronoun, singular number, *his* (*he, him*), since there is no singular, third person pronoun of common gender:

Everybody in the church expressed *his* surprise (*everybody* includes both men and women).

This use of the masculine pronoun is, of course, entirely arbitrary, and involves an illogical gender relation between the pronoun and its antecedent. Some writers, in an effort to avoid the ambiguous reference, use *his or her:* "Everybody expressed *his or her* surprise." This construction, however, is awkward and cumbersome, and should not be used unless the statement requires special exactness in the reference of the pronoun.

Sometimes it is better to reconstruct the sentence:

All the audience expressed their surprise.
Everybody expressed surprise.

340. ***Either—Or.*** When the antecedent consists of two nouns connected by the conjunctions *either—or, neither—nor,* a singular pronoun is used if the separate parts of the antecedent are singular, a plural pronoun if the parts are plural:

Either the *man* or the *boy* has deserted *his* post.
Neither the *men* nor the *boys* have deserted *their* posts.

(a) When the parts are of different persons, numbers, or genders, the pronoun is made to agree with the nearer part, or the sentence should be reconstructed:

Neither the *mother* nor her *daughters* were present.

341. Collective Nouns. A singular or a plural pronoun is used with a collective noun as antecedent, according to whether the group which it names is thought of as acting as a unit or as individual members:

The jury has agreed on *its* verdict.
The committee are too much occupied with *their* personal affairs.

342. *One.* When the indefinite pronoun *one* (meaning *anyone, a person*) is used as an antecedent, some writers always refer to it later by *one* or *one's*. It is, however, also correct to use *his, he,* or *him:*

One soon discovers that *one's* income is insufficient for all that *one* wants. (Or)
One soon discovers that *his* income is insufficient for all that *he* wants.

Pronouns without Definite Antecedents

343. Indefinite Plurals. The plurals of all three persons of the personal pronouns are used indefinitely in the sense of *one, a person, people in general:*

On closer examination, *we* find that the theory is unsound.
On entering the building, *you* will see a marble statue.
They say that the commander has resigned.

344. Indefinite *Your*. The possessive case *your* is similarly used in a few expressions like

Your truly brave man never falters.

Note. These indefinite constructions should not be used when there is any danger of ambiguity.

345. Indefinite *It*. The pronoun *it* is used indefinitely and impersonally in a number of constructions:

(1) In certain statements about the weather, time, etc.:

It is warm today.
It is snowing.
It feels like rain.
It is nearly midnight.
It is time to go to work.

(2) As an introductory word whose function it is to bring into a prominent place near the beginning of the sentence some word or words which are to be emphasized:

It is John that I want to see.
It was here that we found him.

It is a long journey to Rome.
It is five miles to the nearest town.
It seems only a short time since you were here.
It was twenty years before I saw him again.
It was in London that I met him.
It was for this reason that I objected.
It is what we do that counts.

The gain in emphasis is obvious in these sentences, when they are compared with the following forms:

I want to see *John.*
We found him *here.*

(3) As an expletive standing for an infinitive or a clause which is the real subject of the sentence and is placed after the verb (see Secs. 286–7):

It is reported that he was surprised at the result (*that he was surprised at the result* is reported).
It is hard to select the winner (*to select the winner* is hard).

(4) As an expletive standing for the direct object (see Sec. 362 (a)):

He found *it* difficult to escape (he found *it,* namely, *to escape* (*escaping*), difficult).

(5) As a sort of general impersonal object after certain verbs:

He lorded *it* over his neighbors.
They are roughing *it* this summer.
We will fight *it* out on this line if it takes all summer.

(6) In sentences like the following, *it* is used to refer to persons, contrary to the ordinary rules for the agreement of pronouns:

It is *I.*
It was my *brother.*
It is *they* who are responsible.

In the first sentence *I* is first person, whereas *it,* in the ordi-

nary uses, is third person. In the second, *brother* is masculine, whereas *it* is supposedly neuter. In the third, *they* is plural, whereas *it* is singular. In other words, in these constructions *it* may refer indefinitely to words of any person, number, or gender.

CHAPTER XIV

ADJECTIVES

346. Any word or group of words that modifies a noun is an adjective.

The following constructions are commonly thus used:

(1) Regular Adjectives: *brave* soldiers; *large* apples.
(2) Nouns or Pronouns: *Christmas* presents; *that* book.
(3) Nouns or Pronouns in the Possessive Case: *John's* hat; *my* coat.
(4) Participles or Participial Phrases: *running* water; a man *reading the paper;* a fish *caught in the net.*
(5) Infinitives or Infinitive Phrases: houses *to rent;* an attempt *to find a solution.*
(6) Prepositional Phrases: the house *on the alley.*
(7) Clauses: the man *who was hungry.*
(8) A Past Participle followed by an Adverb: a *broken-down* carriage; a *worn-out* overcoat; a *trumped-up* charge.
(9) A Noun, Equivalent to a Prepositional Phrase, used as follows: a coat a *size* too small (*of a size*); ink the *color* of blood (see Sec. 315).
(10) A Preposition, without an Object: "They live in the room *above*" (*above this one*) (see Sec. 533).
(11) Idiomatic Expressions like a *ten-foot* pole and a *five-mile* walk, consisting of a plural numeral combined with a singular noun to form a single unit-adjective.

Note. The constructions in (11) are used only before a noun, and a hyphen should be placed between the two parts. When a

corresponding expression is placed after the noun that it modifies, the plural form—*feet, miles,* etc.—is used, and the hyphen is omitted: "This pole is *ten feet* long."

NUMBER

347. The pronominal adjectives *this* and *that* (plural *these* and *those*) are the only adjectives in English which have different forms before singular and plural nouns:

Singular	Plural
this paper	*these* papers
that child	*those* children

348. Before the nouns *kind* and *sort,* which are singular, the singular forms *this* and *that* must be used, not the plural forms *these* and *those:*

this kind of people (not *these* kind).
that sort of peaches (not *those* sort).

Before the plurals of these nouns, *these* and *those* are used: *those* kinds, *these* sorts.

349. Other adjectives have the same form for singular and plural: *good* boy, *good* boys.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES

For the regular position of single adjectives, generally before nouns, see Sec. 91.

350. A pure adjective phrase or clause, or a pure adjective modified by a phrase or clause, regularly follows the noun:

The name *of the man* is Harry Drake.
He gave us instructions *to bring the papers.*
The messenger *who brought the papers* has gone.
A plank *black with age* was lying near.
The men *working in the field* were notified.

Note. The expression *"pure* adjective" is used above to distinguish these constructions from those having a dual adjective

and adverbial meaning (see Sec. 494). The latter type, when they refer to the subject of a sentence, may be placed before the subject or after it:

Weak from his effort, John fell to the ground.
John, *weak* from his effort, fell to the ground.

Some participial phrases modifying the subject have the same dual nature, and may be placed before or after the subject:

Fearing trouble, the officer summoned the guard.
The officer, *fearing* trouble, summoned the guard.

351. A few adjective phrases which have become closely united into permanent units may precede the noun:

This is an *up-to-date* hotel.
He is a *dyed-in-the-wool* Republican.

PREDICATE ADJECTIVE

For a previous discussion, see Sec. 92.

352. In addition to regular adjectives, the following constructions may be used as predicate adjectives:

(1) A Participle:

The book is *interesting.*
His address was *inspiring.*

A participle used as a predicate adjective should be carefully distinguished from one used as a part of a progressive verb-phrase:

The book is *interesting* (predicate adjective).
The man *is interesting* the farmers in tractors (part of a verb-phrase).

(2) An Infinitive:

The third apartment is *to rent.*
This bread is *to eat.*

(3) A Prepositional Phrase:

His demand is *out of reason* (*unreasonable*).
They were *in high spirits* (*happy*).

The illustrations are *in colors* (*colored* illustrations).
The man is *from the city* (a *city* man).
The officer was *of gigantic size* (*large*).
These books are *by an unknown writer* (*anonymous*).

(4) A Clause:

That is *what I call cheap.*

Uses of Predicate Adjectives

353. A predicate adjective may follow a verb in the passive voice, as well as one in the active voice:

The guide is considered *trustworthy* (passive voice).
The body was found *frozen.*
The house was painted *green.*
His father became very *wealthy* (active voice).
The prisoner turned *pale.*

354. A predicate adjective may describe the subject in a simple adjective relation:

The Jonathan apples are *ripe.*
This book on earthquakes is *reliable.*
The report has been found *true.*
The man was declared *guilty.*

355. After certain verbs denoting *making, doing,* or *turning,* the predicate adjective describes the subject as it is after the action indicated by the verb has taken place:

The iron is hammered *square.*
The ore is heated *red-hot.*
The house was painted *green.*
The line was made *straight.*
The milk turned *sour.*

These adjectives are similar in meaning to clauses introduced by *until* or *so that:* "The iron is hammered *until* (or *so that*) it is square."

356. A predicate adjective after a passive verb sometimes

has much the same meaning as an adverbial clause of time:

The mortar is applied *wet* (while it is wet).

Note 1. The predicate adjectives in Sections 355–6 show the dual relation of adjective and adverb. Thus, in "The ore is heated *red hot*," the adjective *red hot* both describes the noun *ore* and tells the result produced by the action indicated by the verb.

Note 2. If the passive verb is changed into the active voice, the predicate adjective which follows it becomes an objective complement (see Secs. 363 ff.): thus, "The ore is heated *red hot*" becomes "They heated the ore *red hot*."

Distinction between Predicate Adjective and Adverb

357. After certain verbs care should be taken not to use an adverb when a predicate adjective is required to convey the intended meaning:

The flower smells *sweet* (not *sweetly*).
The medicine tastes *bitter* (not *bitterly*).
The boy looked *stupid* (not *stupidly*).
The tone sounds *flat* (not *flatly*).
The note rang *true* (not *truly*).

In the first sentence, for example, *sweet* describes the flower —it is a *sweet flower;* the second makes a statement about a *bitter medicine;* the third, about a *stupid boy.* Yet in all the sentences given above the qualifying words do, in some degree, modify the verbs as well: they are adjectives which also have an adverbial meaning (see Sec. 494).

A test that may be used in determining whether an adjective or an adverb is to be employed is this: Does the modifier belong to the subject more particularly than to the verb? If it does, use the adjective. For instance, compare the two sentences:

The boy looked *stupid.*
The boy looked *stupidly* at the floor.

In the first, the adjective *stupid* describes the *boy;* in the second, the adverb *stupidly* shows his manner of looking at the floor.

Another test for determining whether an adjective or an adverb is correct may be made by substituting *is* or *was* (*are* or *were*)

for the verb in the sentence, and placing the adjective form after it. If this can be done without materially changing the thought of the sentence, a predicate adjective is almost always the proper construction; if it cannot be done, the adverb should be used. Thus, for "The boy *looked* stupid," we can substitute "The boy *was* stupid"; hence the adjective form is correct. In the sentence, "The boy *looked* stupidly at the floor," the change gives no meaning at all: "The boy *was* stupid at the floor"; hence the adverb must be used.

ADJECTIVES AS OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS

For a preliminary discussion, see Sec. 93.

358. A participle (present or past) may be used as an objective complement:

They found the prisoner *missing*.
They kept us *working* all day.
We heard the man *coming*.
We discovered him *mowing* the lawn.
He found the house *locked* and his mother *gone*.

359. A phrase may be used as an objective complement:

We considered him *of value* to the town (*valuable*).
We found her *in high spirits* (*high spirited* or *happy*).
The report made him *out of humor* (*ill humored*).

360. The infinitive phrase in sentences like the following is sometimes called an objective complement:

They knew him *to be honest*.
The investigation proved the prisoner *to be insane*.

This classification may be followed or the expression *him to be honest* or *the prisoner to be insane* may be regarded as an infinitive phrase with a subject, used as the object of the verb (see Sec. 205).

Note 1. The objective complement is usually equivalent to an infinitive phrase introduced by *to be*, but the *to be* is not expressed (see Sec. 93). Thus, "We consider the man *honest*"

means "We consider the man *to be honest.*" After some verbs the complement alone cannot be used, the phrase being employed in its place: "We know the man *to be honest*" (not "We know the man *honest*").

Note 2. A clause, when used as an objective complement, is generally a noun (see Sec. *227*(6)).

361. An adjective used as an objective complement may be introduced by *as:*

We regarded him *as* entirely *trustworthy.* (Cf. "We considered him *trustworthy.*")

362. The adjective used as the objective complement precedes the direct object (the infinitive) in sentences like

We thought *best* to go. (We thought to go *best.*)

(a) Sometimes an impersonal *it,* anticipating the direct object (see Sec. 345 (4)), precedes this construction:

We thought *it* best to go.

363. When used after verbs denoting *making* or *causing,* the objective complement describes the object as it is after its nature or appearance has been changed by the action indicated by the verb; it therefore shows the result of that action on the object:

The gift made her *happy.*
They made the ball *round.*
She wrung the clothes *dry.*
We stained the chair *brown.*
The carpenter bored the hole too *small.*

364. When used after some verbs it modifies or describes the object without indicating any change in its nature or appearance:

We consider the man *honest.*
They thought the story *absurd.*
The physician found the patient *sick* in bed.
He drank his coffee *cold.*

Note. In the sentence, "He drank his coffee *cold,*" the com-

plement is practically equivalent to an adverbial clause, *while it was cold.* All adjectives used as objective complements show in greater or less degree the dual nature of adjective and adverb (see Sec. 494).

THE ARTICLES

Articles with Names of Members of a Class

365. An article is regularly used with a noun designating a member of a class of objects. The indefinite articles *a* and *an* indicate any member; the definite article *the* indicates a particular member (see Secs. 89 ff.):

I want *an* apple.
I want *the* apple on the table.

Articles with Proper Names

366. With proper names, we should expect that the article would be omitted, since the proper name itself regularly indicates a particular member of a class. In many cases it is omitted, but there are numerous exceptions. An idea of the diversity of usage may be gained from the following examples (the list is, of course, not complete):

367. Names Requiring an Article. The article *the* is regularly used when the name consists of a class name preceded by an adjective, in the following instances:

(1) *Nations:* The United States, the French Republic, the British Empire.
(2) *Oceans, Seas, Rivers, and Channels:* The Atlantic Ocean, the Yellow Sea, the Mississippi River, the English Channel.
(3) *Mountains (when plural) and Valleys:* The Rocky Mountains, the Andes Mountains, the Berkshire Hills (also elliptical expressions: the Rockies, the Alps, the Andes, the Berkshires), the Yosemite Valley, the Mississippi Valley. Single mountains usually omit the article, with the class

name standing either first or last: Lookout Mountain, Bald Mountain, Bunker Hill, Mt. Washington, Mt. White.

(4) *Corporations, Companies, Magazines, Buildings, etc.:* The Boston Store, the Auditorium Hotel (also the Auditorium), the Smith Dry Goods Company, the Economy Market, the State Street Bank, the Chicago Tribune, the Atlantic Monthly, the Colonial Theater, the Woolworth Building, the Metropolitan Museum.

(5) *Any Name containing an "Of"-Phrase:* The City of Columbus, the Province of Quebec, the Republic of France, the Gulf of Mexico, the Bay of Naples, the Strait of Dover.

368. Names Omitting the Article. The article is regularly omitted in the following names, although they contain class names like those in Section 367:

(1) *Counties and Cities:* Hennepin County, Adams County, Atlantic City.

(2) *Single Islands:* Long Island, Roanoke Island (but *the* Shetland Islands, *the* Bahama Islands—plural (also *the* Bahamas)).

(3) *Lakes, Creeks, Bays, Sounds:* White Lake (cf. *the* White Sea), Moose Lake, Long Lake (also when the class name precedes: Lake Michigan, Lake George), Simpson Creek, Pigeon Creek, Hudson Bay, Tampa Bay, Puget Sound.

(4) *Streets, Avenues, etc.:* Market Street, Forty-second Street, Commonwealth Avenue, Drexel Boulevard, Roosevelt Road, Clinton Place.

(5) *Any Name having the Qualifying Word in the Possessive Case:* St. George's Channel, Sullivan's Theater, Tom's Café.

369. The article is regularly omitted with the names of persons, and with geographical names which do not contain a class name:

John Smith, General Grant, King George II; Europe, England, Great Britain, Germany, Indiana, Philadelphia.

Note. The is used to distinguish a particular person having a certain name from other persons of the same name:

The John Smith that I know is not *the* John Smith who signed the letter.

Articles with Abstract Nouns and Class Names

370. Abstract Nouns and Names of Materials. With an abstract noun or a noun indicating a class which is thought of as bulk or material, not as being made up of individual units or members, the article is regularly omitted:

Loyalty is always commendable.
They fought for *freedom* from *oppression.*
He valued *education* for its own sake.
Water becomes *steam* under certain conditions.
Science is classified knowledge.

Note. With some words of this class the usage may vary with the context:

Night is the time for sleep.
At *night,* noises are intensified.
In *the night,* noises are intensified.

371. Classes Composed of Individual Units. With a name indicating a class which is made up of individual units or members, the following forms occur:

(1) With plural class names, the article is regularly omitted:

Cats are domestic pets.
Rubies are precious stones.
Animals are living creatures.

(2) With the more general class names in the singular number, an indefinite, not a definite, article is used:

An animal is a living creature (not *the* animal).
A jewel is a precious stone (not *the* jewel).

(3) With the more specific class names in the singular number, either a definite or an indefinite article may be employed:

A cat (*the cat*) is a domestic pet.
A ruby (*the ruby*) is a precious stone.

372. It will be noted that in the case of singular class names the article regularly becomes more definite as the class

becomes more definite and specific in its individual units. Thus, the article is omitted in the class names in Sec. 370—these classes have no individual units; an indefinite article is used with the names in Sec. 371 (2)—the individual units are comparatively general; the definite article is used only with the names in Sec. 371 (3)—here the units are specific. The words *poetry, poem,* and *epic* may be taken to illustrate these three classes:

Poetry is a form of verse.
A poem (not *the poem*) is a form of verse.
The epic (*an epic*) is a form of verse.

373. This principle, however, is only a general one. In actual practice there are many subtle distinctions in the use of the article, which must be learned by observation and experience.

Special Uses of the Articles

374. *A* for *Each.* *A* or *an* is used in the sense of *each* in expressions like:

Two dollars *a* pound; fifty miles *a* day; ten cents *an* ounce.

A or *an* is preferable to *per* except in Latin phrases like *per diem, per annum,* etc., and in formal business writing.

The is also sometimes used in these expressions: as, "one dollar *the* copy."

375. *Such a.* In expressions like *such a, many a,* and *what a,* the article follows the principal adjective instead of preceding it:

such a manner; *many a* boy; *what a* book.

The regular position of the article is before the principal adjective or adjectives: as, "*a* large boy"; "*a* fine, healthy baby."

376. *A Dozen.* In idiomatic expressions like *a dozen eggs, a few boys,* etc., the article *a* seemingly modifies a plural noun.

This construction may be explained as having originated from the dropping of the preposition *of* from expressions like *a dozen (of) eggs,* in which *a* modified the singular noun *dozen,* which in turn was modified by the phrase *of eggs.* In parsing, however, the *of* is not to be supplied: the construction is a recognized idiom.

Note. Compare the expressions *a dozen of each kind,* and *a few of every class,* in which the *of* is retained.

377. ***A-fishing.*** The *a* in *a-fishing, asleep, aboard,* etc., is not the article but a weakened form of *on.*

These expressions are derived from *on-fishing, on sleep, on board,* etc.: that is, they were originally prepositional phrases. Compare *"aboard* the ship" and *"on board* the ship," in which we have a weakened and a full form of the same construction, both in present-day use.

378. **Emphatic *The.*** *The* is used to point out an object with special emphasis:

This is *the* book of the year.
He is *the* man of the hour.

379. ***The* as an Adverb.** In the following expressions *the* is used, not as an article, but as an adverb of degree:

The more you eat, *the* more you want.
The more, *the* merrier.
He writes *the* most effectively when he has a congenial subject.

380. **Archaic *Ye.*** The form *ye* used in such expressions as *Ye Olde Inne* to give them an archaic turn, is not the pronoun *ye* but the article *the.* Formerly, the combination *th* was represented by a character called "thorn," which was similar in appearance to a *y* with a closed top. In early printing the *y* was substituted for the "thorn," and the word appeared as *ye.* It is pronounced like *the.*

CHAPTER XV

VERBS

For a preliminary discussion of verbs, their classification, properties, and use, see Chapter IV.

TRANSITIVE VERBS WITH IMPLIED OBJECTS

381. A verb which is transitive by nature is sometimes used without an expressed object:

The men *ate* in silence.
I *can hear* perfectly well.
Harry *writes* rapidly.

These verbs have the appearance of intransitive verbs, but there is an implied object: thus, one doesn't eat without eating *something*. They are sometimes called *Transitive Verbs used Absolutely*. The difference between them and the real intransitive verbs may be seen by comparing the following sentences with the examples given above:

Water *freezes* in winter (intransitive).
The answer *came* quickly (intransitive).

(In Part I (see Sec. 99) no distinction was made between the two groups, but in a complete analysis they are to be classified separately.)

VERB-GROUPS

Verb plus Preposition or Adverb

382. Sometimes a preposition or an adverb is so closely related to a preceding verb that it seems to help in expressing

the verbal idea. The two may be regarded as forming a Verb-group:

They *looked up* his address.
The guide *pointed out* the house.
He *will give up* the idea of going (cf. *"will relinquish* the idea").

In the first sentence *up* is not, strictly speaking, used as a preposition, as may be seen by comparing *up his address* with *up the stairway,* in "They looked *up the stairway.*" Nor is *up* an adverb, for if it were we should have to regard *address* as the direct object of *looked,* an intransitive verb. We have no alternative, then, except to call *address* the direct object of the verb-group *looked up.* So in the second sentence: the guide did not "point *out the house*" or "point *the house"; he "pointed out* the house."

383. The constructions in the following sentences are somewhat different in nature:

(a) He *came up* the stairs (*ascended*).
They *ran after* the fugitives (*pursued*).
I *ran upon* this passage in my reading (*found*—accidentally).
(b) They *ate up* the food (*consumed*).
The workmen *tore down* the building (*demolished*).
He *has built up* a prosperous business (cf. *established*).

In group (a) *up the stairs, after the fugitives,* and *upon this passage* may be regarded as prepositional phrases modifying the verbs. This is the usual classification. In group (b) *up* and *down* may be classified as adverbs, the following nouns being the direct objects of the transitive verbs *ate, tore,* and *built.* Yet in both groups there is a close enough relation between the verbs and the prepositions or adverbs to warrant our considering the combinations as verb-groups. Either classification may be used.

It will be noted that if we adopt the verb-group classifica-

tion, in group (a) we have, in effect, an intransitive verb made transitive by combining it with a preposition. For example, *stairs* becomes the direct object of *came up,* although *came* by itself is intransitive.

Verb plus Infinitive

384. A form of the verb *be* or *have,* combined with an infinitive, makes a verb-group which is practically equivalent to a regular verb-phrase having *will* or *must* as an auxiliary. *Going* and *about* are sometimes used with *be* in these constructions:

He *is to pay* the freight (*will pay*).
I *am going to read* this book (*will read*).
She *is about to sail* for Europe (*will soon sail*).
They *have to be* at home tomorrow (*must be*).

TENSE

385. The uses of the six tenses in English were stated in general terms in Sections 114, 115. This explanation, however, presented only part of the truth: it outlined the fundamental principles in the distinction of tenses, but it did not take into consideration a number of exceptions.

The first step in a more thorough study of this subject is to distinguish clearly between *grammatical tenses* and the *actual time* represented by them. When we speak of *grammatical tenses* we have reference to the forms of the verbs. These forms follow definite rules of construction (see Sec. 116): the future tense is formed by means of the auxiliary verbs *shall* or *will;* the present perfect tense by *have* or *has;* the past perfect by *had,* etc. The distinguishing of the grammatical tenses, then, is largely a matter of the mechanical recognition of form.

The *grammatical tenses,* however, do not always represent the *actual time* which their names would lead us to expect.

For example, the present tense does not always show that the action is taking place in present time, and the future tense is not the only one that may indicate future time. The following list covers the principal uses of the different tenses:

TENSES IN THE INDICATIVE MOOD

Uses of the Present Tense

386. The principal uses of the Present Tense are as follows:

(1) To indicate an action that is taking place in actual present time:

He *is* at the office.
His hands *feel* warm.
I *am writing* a letter to my sister.

(2) To express a fact that is always and universally true:

God *is* just.
Water *flows* downhill.

In this use, the present tense covers past, present, and future time.

(3) To indicate habitual or customary action:

I *walk* to the office every morning.
John *writes* to his mother daily.
H *is selling* stocks and bonds for a New York firm (meaning that this is his business).

In this use, the present tense includes past and present time, and implies continued action in the future.

(4) To indicate an intended action in future time (the context shows the future meaning):

I *leave* next Monday for New York.
He *is coming* tomorrow.

387. Combined with an Infinitive. The present tense forms of *be* and *be going,* combined with an infinitive, frequently indicate future time (*about* is sometimes used in connection with *be* in this construction):

He *is to be* here next week.
I *am going to do* the work tomorrow.
He *is about to begin* his speech (cf. "will soon begin").

These combinations are equivalent to verb-phrases having *will* as an auxiliary verb: as, *will be, will do* (see Sec. 384).

388. The Historical Present. The present tense may be used to give vividness to an account of a past action:

Imagine, for a moment, the scene which greeted the travelers in this Italian village. It *is* Christmas morning, and the bell of the little church *is ringing* cheerily to summon the villagers to the morning service, etc. (Notice the change from the past tense to the present tense when the description of the actual scene begins.)

By this use of the **Historical Present,** as it is commonly called, the narrator makes a past scene or action more vivid by describing it as if it were actually present before him.

(a) In the following sentences, also, the present tense gives a past action a definite connection with present time:

I *hear* that the State Street Bank has failed.
I *see* that Williams has been made vice-president.

These sentences do not necessarily mean that I am hearing the news *now* for the first time; they indicate rather that I *have heard* it.

Uses of the Past Tense

389. The Past Tense in its ordinary uses places an action unreservedly in past time, and cuts it off completely from any connection with present time. Its two principal functions are:

(1) To indicate an action that occurred at a specific time in the past (the specific time may be expressed, or understood from the context):

He *arrived* on Saturday.
They *entered* the room noiselessly.
She *was waiting* at the door.

(2) To indicate habitual or customary action in past time:

The Indians *lived* in wigwams.
The Romans *were* valiant fighters.
All the poor *brought* their troubles to him.

390. Idiomatic Uses. Besides these, the past tense has two idiomatic uses, as illustrated in the following sentences:

(a) I *was going* tomorrow (meaning that I did intend to go tomorrow, but I have changed my mind).

Here the past tense indicates that some future action was contemplated in the past, but is no longer probable.

(b) I *knew* that it *was* late (in reply to some remark, such as "It is past midnight").
I *thought* you *seemed* tired (in reply to some remark, such as "I am tired").

In each of these sentences the verb in both the main and the subordinate clause is in the past tense, although the sentence distinctly implies that the condition which it describes is still continuing. Thus the first example means primarily "I knew (before you said so) that it was late," but it also implies that I still *know* that it *is* late. The past tense in the subordinate clause is due to attracted sequence of tenses (see Secs. 406 ff.).

Uses of the Future Tense

391. The Future Tense is used:

(1) To indicate an expected future action:

We *shall arrive* next Monday morning.
The work *will be finished* within a month.

(2) To indicate—under certain conditions—a fact true at the present time:

He *will be* at home now.
You *will find* him in his office now.
He *will* not *be* there so early as this.

The future tense is used in these sentences because they imply some possible future action. Thus the first sentence, in addition to stating that the man is at home now, suggests that if you will go there you will find him. The present meaning is shown by the context: for example, the adverb *now*.

392. Sometimes this construction expresses a hope or desire that something may be true at the present time:

They *will* surely *be* ready by this time.

For uses of the future perfect tense, see Sec. 115 (3).

Uses of the Present Perfect Tense

393. The Present Perfect Tense is regularly used to indicate an action completed at some time before the present:

I *have solved* the problem.
He *has filed* his income tax schedule.
I *have seen* that picture somewhere.

394. The two principal characteristics of the present perfect tense, as regularly used, are: (a) it sets up the present as the limit of the period in which the action occurred; (b) it places the action *indefinitely* in that period.

395. The important point to remember about this tense is that it is not used when an action is to be placed at a definite point in past time:

I *have seen* him *yesterday* (incorrect).
He *has worked* on a farm *last summer* (incorrect).
In 1492 Columbus *has discovered* America (incorrect).

For these definite references, the past tense is used:

I *saw* him *yesterday* (correct).
He *worked* on a farm *last summer* (correct).
In 1492 Columbus *discovered* America (correct).

396. If any definite indication of time is used with the present perfect tense, it must be closely connected with the present:

I *have spoken* to him *today.*
He *has been working* on a farm *this summer.*

Compare also the use of this tense in connection with *since:*

Since 1916, prices *have risen* rapidly (correct).

Here the statement is made, not about a definite point of time in the past, but about a period extending from 1916 to the *present.* Notice that it would be incorrect to say, "*After 1916* prices *have risen* rapidly," for *after* does not connect the statement with the present. The past tense *rose* would be used here.

397. Action Continuing into the Present. The present perfect tense sometimes indicates an action which was begun in the past and continues into the present:

He *has worked* for five hours on this problem (he is still working on it).
They *have lived* in the country ten years (they still live there).

In these constructions the progressive forms, *has been working* and *have been living,* are preferable to the simple forms (see Sec. 416).

Use of the Past Perfect Tense

398. The regular function of the Past Perfect Tense is to indicate that an action occurred before some other past action, or before some certain time in the past:

I *had written* to you before your letter came.
When the clock struck six, he *had copied* twenty pages.
He succeeded because he *had studied* the problem thoroughly.
They went to his assistance after he *had called* twice.

Note 1. The previous action represented by the past perfect tense may be placed in a main clause (as in the first two examples above), or in a subordinate clause (last two examples).

Note 2. The subsequent action is usually expressed by the past tense.

399. In narrative writing the past perfect tense is used to indicate any action that preceded the time of the main story, when the latter time is expressed by the past tense:

We found a stranger there, looking at a notice tacked on the front of the building. It *had been put* up months before, and was stained and torn by the weather. This paper *had been sent* out by the sheriff from the county seat, and gave a picture and a description of an outlaw who *had escaped* from prison.

400. Sometimes the past perfect tense is used in a subordinate clause beginning with *before* or an equivalent word, to indicate an action which *should have preceded* the action expressed in the main clause, but did not actually do so:

He gave his decision before he *had studied* all the data.
The manager came before I *had read* the report.

Thus the past perfect tense in the first example emphasizes the fact that all the data should have been studied before the decision was given.

401. In modern English, the past tense is frequently used instead of the past perfect tense when the time of the

previous action is clearly shown by the context, and does not need to be emphasized:

He succeeded because he *studied* the problem thoroughly (*had studied*).

The past perfect form, however, should always be employed when it is needed for clearness.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

For the forms and uses of the subjunctive mood, see Secs. 131 ff.

402. Time Indicated by the Present Tense. The present tense of the subjunctive mood indicates present time (or future time when the context shows the future meaning):

If that *be* the case, our cause is lost.
If it *be* raining tomorrow, they will not go.

403. Time Indicated by the Past Tense. The past tense of the subjunctive mood does not indicate actual past time. Like the present tense, it regularly refers to present time:

If I *were* wealthy, I would give you the money (now).
I wish that he *were* here (now).
He acts as if he *were* ill (now).

The difference between the two tenses in conditional statements is that the present subjunctive indicates a condition which *may or may not be true to fact,* whereas the past tense always indicates a condition which is *contrary to fact* (see Secs. 136, 137). Thus in this kind of statement the past tense has lost practically all its force as an indicator of time, and has become a means of showing the kind of condition that is being expressed.

Note. When the verb of the main clause is in the past tense, the past subjunctive in wishes and after *as if* and *as though* indicates the same time as the main verb—that is, it represents

what was present time when the action of the main verb occurred:

I wished that he *were* there (at the time of the wishing).
She walked as if she *were* tired.

404. Combinations of the past subjunctive with infinitives and words like *going,* which express a future meaning, may refer to actual future time, or to time subsequent to that of the main verb:

If he *were to ask* me tomorrow, I might consent.
I wish that she *were going* next week.
He talked as though he *were going* to be a millionaire.

405. Time Indicated by the Past Perfect Tense. For indicating actual past time in the subjunctive mood, a past perfect form is used:

If she *had been* there, the accident would not have occurred.
If he *had come,* the officers would have seen him.
I wish that I *had seen* you.
He looks as if he *had been injured.*

SEQUENCE OF TENSES

406. Sequence of Tenses is the principle which governs the tense relations between the verb in a main clause and one in an accompanying subordinate clause.

The verbs may be in Natural or Attracted Sequence.

Verbs are in **Natural Sequence** when they indicate the natural or logical time relation existing between the actions which they represent.

For instance, when the actions in the main clause and in the subordinate clause take place in present time and in future time respectively, natural sequence requires that the verbs shall be in the present tense and the future tense: "He *knows* that you *will come.*"

In cases of **Attracted Sequence,** the verb in the subordinate clause is "attracted" from its natural tense form into

one which harmonizes with the tense of the verb in the main clause, without regard to the actual time represented.

For example, if a person says, "I *am* ill," that remark may be immediately repeated by someone in the form, "He *said* that he *was* ill." Here the verb *am* is attracted into the past tense *was* to make it conform with the past tense *said,* in spite of the fact that the original speaker may still be ill.

Attracted Sequence

407. Attracted sequence is the only one of the two types that involves possible complications, and it is practically restricted to *indirect discourse and to clauses of purpose following main verbs in the past and past perfect tenses.*

408. In Indirect Discourse. Indirect Discourse is a form of statement in which the thought of a speaker is repeated in substance but in a different form from that originally used:

He said, *"I will go"* (direct discourse).
He said *that he would go* (indirect discourse).

409. When the verb of the main clause is in the past or past perfect tense, attracted sequence occurs as follows:

(1) A present tense in the original direct statement becomes a past tense in indirect discourse:

She *said* that you *were* wrong. (Direct—"You *are* wrong.")
I *told* you that he *was* at home. (He *is* at home.)
They *asked* whether we *were* ready. (*Are* you ready?)
I *remarked* that I *might be* there. (I *may be* there.)

Exception. The present tense is regularly used in the subordinate clause, with a past tense in the main clause, to express a universal or general truth:

He *declared* that the earth *is* round.
They *said* that virtue *is* its own reward.

(2) A present perfect tense becomes a past perfect tense:

They *said* that he *had gone.* (Direct—"He *has gone.*")

(3) A future or a future perfect tense assumes a form having as an auxiliary *would* (*should*) or *would have* (*should have*), respectively:

She *said* that she *would go.* (Direct—"I *will go.*")
I said that you *would have finished* the work by that time. (You *will have finished* the work by that time.)

(4) A past or a past perfect tense, since it is already in harmony with the tense of the main verb, regularly remains a past or a past perfect tense, respectively:

I *said* that you *were* at home yesterday. (Direct—"You *were* at home yesterday.")
They *knew* that he *had been* there before the war. (He *had been* there before the war.)

410. The same kind of attracted sequence occurs after such verbs as *expect, suppose, think,* and *know,* and after predicate adjectives like *evident, certain,* and *sure.* These constructions are similar to indirect discourse, although they do not actually state that someone said something.

Thus, on going to a place and finding a person there, one may say, "I was sure that you *were* here." The verb in the subordinate clause is attracted into the past tense by the past tense in the main clause, in spite of the fact that you are still here. Compare also "I thought that you *would go,*" made in response to a statement, "I *will go.*"

Note. When the verb of the main clause in indirect discourse is in any other tense than the past and past perfect, the verb of the subordinate clause has natural sequence (see Sec. 412):

He *says* that he *is* a soldier.
He *says* that he *was* formerly a soldier.
He *says* that he *will be* a soldier.
He *says* that he *had been* a soldier before he became a painter.
She *has said* that you *will receive* the money.
She *has said* that you *received* the money.
He *will think* that you *were* guilty.

411. In Clauses of Purpose. When the verb of the main

clause is in the past or past perfect tense, the past tense of a verb, usually the modal auxiliary *might,* is used in a subordinate clause of purpose (attracted sequence):

He *bought* the house in order that he *might live* in comfort.
He *had bought* the house in order that he *might live* in comfort.
We *were* careful that we *should* not *be seen.*

Note. When the verb of the main clause is in any other tense, the present tense, usually *may,* is used in the subordinate clause:

He *is buying* the house in order that he *may live* in comfort.
He *will buy* the house in order that he *may live* in comfort.
He *has bought* the house in order that he *may live* in comfort.

Natural Sequence

412. Natural Sequence occurs regularly in clauses other than those covered in Secs. 407 ff. The principle governing the sequence of tenses in these constructions is simple:

No matter what the tense of the verb in the main clause is, the verb of the subordinate clause may be in any tense whatsoever that is required by the meaning of the sentence:

He *was* once stronger than he *is* now.
The general once *lived* where the new depot *will be built.*
He *was* once a tramp, although he *is* now wealthy.
The Romans *did* not *dress* as we *do* now.
He *worked* harder than you ever *will* (work).
She *is* unhappy because she *is* poor.
She *is* unhappy because she *lost* her money.
He *will* take what I *brought.*
He *will read* the book when I *have finished* it.
They *have* always *lived* where the winters *are* warm.

For combinations of tenses in conditional sentences, see Sec. 442.

SIMPLE AND PROGRESSIVE VERB FORMS

For the Simple and the Progressive Forms of the tenses, see Secs. 120, 121.

General Distinction

413. In general, the progressive form of the verb, as distinguished from the simple form, makes the action seem more vivid and emphasizes the fact that the action is *in progress* at a certain time.

In the following sentences this is practically the only consideration which governs the choice of one form or the other:

He *feels* tired.
He *is feeling* tired.
An hour later the sun *shone* brightly.
An hour later the sun *was shining* brightly.
He *will talk* for an hour at least.
He *will be talking* for an hour at least.
He *has fished* in this lake for five summers.
He *has been fishing* in this lake for five summers.

In other instances, however, there are more specific differences in use.

Specific Distinctions

414. Present Tense. In the Present Tense the two forms sometimes have radically different functions.

(1) With many verbs the simple present indicates only habitual action, the progressive form being used when an action is placed in actual present time:

John *talks* very rapidly (habitual action).
The soldiers *drill* on the parade ground.
John *is talking* to a friend (actual present).
The soldiers *are drilling* on the parade ground.

(2) With some verbs, however, it is the simple present that indicates actual present time:

I *think* that he is right.
That medicine *seems* harmless.
This rose *smells* sweet.
He *hears* a noise in the house.

I *see* the house now.
I *respect* your motives.

The distinction between groups (1) and (2) seems to be that the verbs in the first one are concerned with *action or activity,* as *walk, run, talk,* etc. (sometimes cessation of activity—as *stand, sit,* etc.); whereas those in the second group generally represent a *state or condition,* as *seem, feel, know, think,* etc. This is only a rough statement of the difference, and certain exceptions will be found; but it shows the general tendency in the two groups.

The basis for the distinction seemingly is that the progressive form expresses an idea more vividly than a simple form and is therefore better suited to indicate action, which, by nature, is more vivid than a condition or a state.

415. It will be noted that, in harmony with the principle just given, some of the verbs in group (2) take the progressive form to indicate actual present time when they are used in a sense that brings them into connection with a definite action:

I *am thinking* of going to Los Angeles (cf. "I *think* you are right").
He *is saying* his prayers (cf. "He *says* that he is ready").

416. Tenses Indicating Past Time. In the tenses representing past time (past, present perfect, and past perfect), the progressive form is used to give the impression that the action was not completed. Compare:

He *was writing* the letter yesterday (progressive form—the letter may not have been completed).
He *wrote* the letter yesterday (simple form—the letter was completed).

She *has been reading* the book.
She *has read* the book.

Before I came they *had been framing* a new constitution.
Before I came they *had framed* a new constitution.

417. In the past tense, when one action of comparatively brief duration occurred while another action of longer duration was in progress, the briefer action is generally represented by the simple past, the longer one by the progressive past:

He *was waiting* for the train when I *saw* him.
The man *was carrying* a revolver when he *was arrested.*
John *was standing* on the corner as the car *passed* by.

418. When the two actions are of about the same duration, either the simple past or the progressive past may be used to represent both actions, the latter being chosen when especial emphasis or vividness is desired:

He *spoke* as I *entered* the room.
He *was laughing* all the time that the officers *were searching* him.

Notice the difference in meaning in the following sentences:

He *spoke* as I *entered.*
He *was speaking* as I *entered.*

In the first, he made some brief remark, perhaps gave a word of greeting, when I entered. In the second, he was in the midst of a statement which he had begun before my entrance.

PARTICIPLES

For a previous discussion of participles, see Secs. 158 ff.

USES OF THE PARTICIPLE

419. A participle or a participial phrase may be used
(1) As an Adjective:

The *running* water is pure.
The man *reading the paper* is the auditor.

His *rejected* manuscript was returned.
The course *prescribed for freshmen* is difficult.

(2) As a Predicate Adjective:

The book is *interesting.*
That condition was *exasperating.*
The arm is *swollen.*
The man was found *dying.*

(3) As an Adverb in a Dual Relation (see Secs. 200, 494):

Fearing more trouble, the sheriff sent for help.
The boy came *jumping up the steps.*
They ran down the street, *shouting and waving their hats* (see Sec. 527).

(4) As an Objective Complement (see Sec. 358):

We found the family *starving.*

(5) In the Nominative Absolute Construction (see Sec. 25):

That *being* the case, he will not come.
It was very cold, the thermometer *registering* zero.
Her father *being* ill, Grace remained at home.

(6) Parenthetically:

Generally *speaking,* there are three kinds of cats.
This result, *assuming* that it is correct, is startling.

A participle used parenthetically does not need to refer to a definite noun.

(7) As Part of a Verb Phrase (see Sec. 203):

He *is writing* a novel.
The artist *has finished* the picture.

TENSES OF THE PARTICIPLE

See Sec. 159 for the tense forms of participles.

Present and Past Participles

420. The present and past participles have a dual function: (a) to represent voice; and (b) to represent time.

421. Indication of Voice. (1) The **Present Participle** shows that the person or thing named by the noun which the participle modifies is performing the action indicated by the participle:

The boy *writing* the letter is the president's son.

(2) The **Past Participle** regularly shows that the person or thing which the noun represents is receiving the action indicated by the participle:

The tree *struck* by lightning was destroyed.

In the first sentence the present participle *writing* modifies *boy*—and the boy is doing the writing. In the second sentence the past participle *struck* modifies *tree*—and the tree received the action.

Some past participles are used before nouns as simple adjectives with little, if any, passive meaning: a *retired* farmer, a *returned* missionary.

422. Indication of Time. Present and past participles do not represent the actual present or past time which their names suggest, but regularly show present or past time relative to the time of the verb in the sentence.

(1) The **Present Participle** regularly indicates an action which is occurring at the time represented by the verb:

Every man *carrying* a rifle *was arrested.*
Every man *carrying* a rifle *is being arrested.*
Every man *carrying* a rifle *will be arrested.*

In these sentences the men are carrying the rifles at the time of their arrest, and the arrests are placed in past, present, and future time, respectively.

(2) Sometimes the **Present Participle** represents an action as taking place at the time the sentence was written or spoken, instead of at the time indicated by the verb:

That man *sitting* at the desk *was promoted* last week.
That man *sitting* at the desk *will be discharged* next week.

(3) The **Past Participle** is regularly used for an action that occurred before the time of the verb in the sentence:

Money *invested* in these bonds *yielded* big returns.
Money *invested* in these bonds *is yielding* big returns.
Money *invested* in these bonds *will yield* big returns.

In the first sentence the yield is in past time, and the money was invested in previous past time. In the second, the yield is in present time, and the money was invested in past time. In the third, the yield is in the future, and the money was, or will be, invested before the time of the yield—in future, present, or past time.

(4) In using the **Past Participle,** however, a writer or speaker frequently is not conscious of the idea of past action. He has in mind only the *result of a past action,* not the action itself:

She lives in a house *built* of red brick.
She saw a child *clothed* in rags.
The factory *located* in Pittsburgh is closed for repairs.

In sentences like these the past participle practically represents the same time as the time of the verb, just as the present participle would do. Hence the difference between the two forms is, in the main, one of active and passive voice (see Sec. 421).

Perfect Participle

423. The function of the perfect participle is to place the action which it represents definitely before the time of the verb in the sentence:

The student, *having solved* the problem, asked for more work.
The problem *having been solved,* the student asked for more work.
The man, *having found* the watch, went home.
The watch *having been found,* the man went home.

In the perfect participle the time element is of primary importance, for the matter of active or passive voice is taken care of by the separate forms: for example, *having found* (active), *having been found* (passive). The relation to past time is much more definite with the perfect participle than with the past participle.

INFINITIVES

For previous discussions of infinitives and infinitive phrases, see Secs. 152 ff., 193 ff.

USES OF THE INFINITIVE

424. As a Noun. An infinitive, or infinitive phrase, may be used as a noun:

To falter would be disastrous (subject of a verb).
To send the message was unnecessary.
It is hard *to select the essential details* (see Sec. 345 (3)).
His ambition is *to study law* (predicate noun).
He promised *to come* (direct object).
They wanted *to see the parade.*
We found it easy *to cross the river* (see Sec. 345 (4)).
She has no choice but *to obey* (object of a preposition—see Sec. 539 (1)).
The dog can do everything except *talk* (see Sec. 532 (5)).
His first proposal, *to borrow the money,* was rejected (in apposition with a noun).

Note. For an infinitive phrase similar in meaning to an objective complement, either noun or adjective, see Secs. 313, *note* 1; 360. Examples are:

We know her *to be a genius.*
They considered him *to be honest.*

425. As an Adjective. An infinitive, or infinitive phrase, may be used as an adjective:

A desire *to travel* is his reason for resigning.
He has an opportunity *to prove his ability.*
This house is *to rent* (predicate adjective).

426. As an Adverb. An infinitive, or infinitive phrase, may be used as an adverb—to modify, or complete the meaning of, a verb, adjective, or adverb:

He went *to get a book* (modifies a verb).
The man stooped *to pick up the paper.*
They appear *to have found all the money.*
He came *to believe that the story was true.*
They are sure *to fail* (modifies an adjective).
They are ready *to begin.*
This problem is easy *to understand.*
She was careful *to lock the door.*
He was too weary *to talk* (modifies the adverb *too*).
They were angry enough *to fight* (modifies the adverb *enough*).

427. Some of these infinitives have so general a relation with the words which they modify that it is useless to attempt to classify them according to their meanings. In such cases they may be called "Complementary Infinitives used as Adverbs." In other instances they clearly fall into one of the regular adverbial groups. For example:

He is too small *to do this work* (degree).
They came *to get their wraps* (purpose).

For the distinction between an infinitive used as an object and one used as an adverb, see Sec. 154, *note 2.*

428. Combined with *Be*. An infinitive combined with a form of the verb *be* makes an equivalent of a verb-phrase:

He is *to go* next week (see Sec. 387).
They were *to be* here this morning.

429. Used Parenthetically. An infinitive may be used parenthetically:

This statement, *to speak frankly,* is untrue.
To be sure, he is not entirely at fault.

430. Used Absolutely with a Noun. An infinitive with a

noun may form a construction similar to a nominative absolute with a participle:

A purse of $5,000 has been offered, *the winner to take two-thirds.*

431. Combined with *How*, etc. An infinitive combined with *how, when, where, which, whether,* and similar words forms an equivalent of a noun clause (see Sec. 322):

I don't know *how to write the letter* (object of a verb).
She will tell you *where to find it.*
The question is *which to select* (predicate noun).
What to do is our next problem (subject).

432. Infinitive with a Subject. (1) For infinitives with subjects and *for* plus an infinitive with a subject, see Secs. 205–207. Examples are:

We expected *them to come on Sunday.*
For them to do that was inexcusable.

(2) When a verb followed by an infinitive with a subject is changed into the passive voice, the subject of the infinitive becomes the subject of the passive verb, and the infinitive becomes a retained object (see Sec. 301–303):

He was forced *to sign the contract.*

433. Infinitive without *to*. An infinitive with the sign *to* omitted (see Sec. 157) may be used:
(1) After certain verbs like *dare,* etc.:

I dare not *try* it (to try).
I saw them *fall* (to fall).
We made him *laugh* (to laugh).

(2) After auxiliaries to form verb-phrases (see Sec. 154, *note* 1):

She will *come.*
He can *sing.*
They should *write.*

(3) As the object of the preposition *except* or *but:*

This dog can do everything except *talk* (to talk).
He does nothing but *complain.*

Note. For the idiom *cannot but* in sentences like "He *cannot but* agree," see Sec. 539 (2).

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

434. The infinitive has two tenses—the Present and the Perfect: for example, *to see* (present), *to have seen* (perfect). Both tenses have progressive and passive forms: *to be seeing, to be seen; to have been seeing, to have been seen* (see Sec. 155).

The tenses of the infinitive do not represent the absolute present or past time which their names suggest; they indicate time relative to that of the verb with which they are used.

Present Infinitive

435. The present infinitive may be used with any tense of a verb. It may represent:

(1) An action occurring at the same time as that of the verb which it accompanies:

I *like to study.*
He *seemed to lift* the weight easily.
They *will help* you *to find* a position.
I *had refused to accept* money for these services.
He appears *to be working* hard.
She likes *to be seen.*

(2) An action occurring after the time of the verb which it accompanies:

I *expect to go* home tomorrow.
Yesterday he *promised to see* me again next week.
He *will leave* tomorrow *to attend* the meeting of the directors on Thursday.
They *have invited* us *to attend* the opening performance.

Perfect Infinitive

436. The perfect infinitive regularly represents an action which occurred before the time of the verb which it accompanies.

It is generally used with a verb in the present tense; sometimes with one in the future tense; less frequently with one in the past tense:

(1) With a verb in the present tense:

I *am* sorry *to have troubled* you.
I *am* glad *to have had* this opportunity to speak to you.
He *is supposed to have been wounded* in the battle.

(2) With a verb in the future tense:

They *will find* him *to have been* a traitor.
As the years pass, he *will seem* more and more *to have represented* the highest ideals of his time.

(3) With a verb in the past tense:

When he left, he *appeared to have enjoyed* the program.
He *was reported to have been captured* by the Indians.

437. Before using this combination of a perfect infinitive with a verb in the past tense, the writer should be sure that the action which is expressed by the infinitive really belongs to a time previous to that of the verb. Usually he will find that such is not the case, and that the present infinitive is the proper form to use:

I hoped *to have seen* you (incorrect).
I hoped *to see* you (correct).

THE MODAL AUXILIARIES

438. Verb-phrases indicating permission, possibility, probability, ability, obligation, and kindred ideas are often made with the aid of the Modal Auxiliaries: namely, *may, can, must, might, could, would,* and *should.* In many instances

these serve as substitutes for older verbs in the subjunctive mood.

For the various tense forms of the modal auxiliaries, see Sec. 145.

439. Time Indicated by the Modal Auxiliaries. *Might, could, would,* and *should,* although they are classified as past tenses, do not ordinarily indicate actual past time. They may indicate either present or future time, just as the present forms do.

The distinction in the use of the present and past tenses is sometimes a matter of different shades of meaning, the past tense forms expressing an idea less definitely—with a greater degree of doubt:

I *can* go today.
I *could* go today (more doubtful).
You *may* find it.
You *might* find it (more doubtful).

Frequently the past tense form is due to sequence of tenses (see Secs. 407 ff.):

I thought that he *might* come. (He *may* come.)
He said that John *would* refuse. (John *will* refuse.)

440. In order to place an action definitely in past time, the present perfect or the past perfect form is regularly used. The latter generally expresses greater doubt:

He *may have* gone yesterday.
He *might have* gone yesterday (more doubtful).
We *could have* seen them.

Note. In some uses, *could* and *would* without *have* may indicate past time: "He *would* eat the entire apple" (was determined to eat it). "He *could* read when he was four years old."

General Uses

441. In sentences expressing condition, necessity, concession, and purpose the modal auxiliaries have the following uses:

442. In Main Clauses. (1) When there is a past tense of the subjunctive mood in a conditional clause contrary to fact, the verb of the main clause regularly has *might, could, would,* or *should* as its auxiliary:

If he *were* younger, he *would* be more active.
If they *knew* the way, they *could* come alone.
If he *had* more money, he *might* be happier.

(2) When there is a past perfect tense of the subjunctive mood in a conditional clause contrary to fact, the verb of the main clause regularly has *might have, could have, would have,* or *should have* as its auxiliary; occasionally it has *might, could, would,* or *should:*

If he *had been* younger, he *would have* been more active.
If they *had known* the way, they *could have* come alone.
If I *had done* that, I *would* tell you.

Note. In sentences expressing a condition which may or may not be true to fact, the verbs in both the main and the subordinate clause may have any form or be in any tense required by the thought, and a modal auxiliary is not necessarily present:

If you *come, bring* me the paper.
If he *is* sick, he *brought* the trouble on himself.
If that *be* (*is*) true, I *was* mistaken.
If she *goes,* she *will be* sorry.
If he *was* there, I *am* sure that he *regrets* it.
If he *went,* he *will tell* you.
If she *knew* it, she *said* nothing to us.
If they *were* there, they *should have telephoned.*
If he *has seen* her, he *will come.*

443. In Subordinate Clauses. Verb-phrases formed with modal auxiliaries are used as subjunctive equivalents in a number of constructions where the subjunctive was formerly the rule. The subjunctive mood is still occasionally found in these constructions, but the forms with the auxiliaries are more common:

(1) *Should* is used in conditional clauses which may or may not be true to fact to indicate doubt that the condition will be fulfilled:

If they *should* fail, please write to me at once.
If he *should* forget to come, you can take his place.

Compare "If he *forgets* to come" and "If he *forget* to come" (see Sec. 136 (1)). *Forgets* (indicative), *forget* (subjunctive), and *should forget* (with the modal auxiliary) indicate increasing degrees of doubt.

(2) *Should* (or *shall*) is used in certain clauses depending upon a verb, noun, or adjective which expresses some form of wish, command, or urgency (see Sec. 136 (4), *note*):

He insisted that the order *should* be obeyed at once.
It was necessary that the messenger *should* leave immediately.
His command was that we *should* be released.
The instructor requires that all papers *shall* be typewritten.

(3) *May, might,* or *should* is used in concessive clauses which admit something as doubtful or possible, not as accomplished:

Although that *may* be true, I refuse to go.
Even though the house *should* burn, the contents are insured.
Even though I *might* be late, I will finish the work.

"Although it *is* true," "Although it *be* true," "Although it *may be* true," and "Although it *might be* true" indicate increasing degrees of doubt.

(4) *May* or *might* (sometimes *should* or *would*) is used in purpose clauses (see Sec. 515):

She studies hard in order that she *may* get a passing mark.
He talked rapidly so that he *might* finish his speech.

Specific Meanings of the Modal Auxiliaries

444. ***May*** (past tense, *might*) denotes:

(1) Permission:

You *may* go home (you have my permission).
May I suggest a change in the plan?
He says that you *may* buy the hat.
He said that you *might* buy the hat (see Sec. 409 (1)).

(2) Possibility:

They *may* find the book.
They *might* find the book (more doubtful).
I think that I *may* see him.
I thought that I *might* see him (see Sec. 410).

(3) A wish (*may* only):

May the flag wave forever!
May his shadow never grow less!

(4) For the use of *may* or *might* as subjunctive equivalents, see Sec. 443.

Note. For the distinction between *may* and *might,* see Sec. 439.

445. ***Can*** (past tense, *could*) denotes:

(1) Ability:

He *can* easily carry the bundle.
He *could* easily carry the bundle (if he tried).
He says that he *can* speak French.
He said that he *could* speak French.

(2) Permission—in negative statements only, excluding negative questions:

You *cannot* go now (I forbid you to go).

Note 1. In affirmative statements and in negative questions, *may* is used to signify permission; *can* to denote ability:

You *may* do the work today (permission).
You *can* do the work today (ability).
May we not send you our catalogue? (asks permission).

Note 2. For the distinction between *can* and *could,* see Sec. 439.

446. ***Must*** denotes:

(1) Necessity or obligation:

She *must* write the letter at once.
The officer *must* do his duty.

Note. To indicate necessity or obligation in past time, the verb *had* with an infinitive is used:

He *had to see* a client in the city yesterday.

Must, however, may refer to past time when used in sequence with a verb in a past tense:

He *told* them that they *must* stop quarreling.

(2) Emphasis in the statement of some inference:

It *must* be after midnight (judging from the way I feel, I infer that it is after midnight).
He *must* think that you are foolish (from what he says to you I infer that he considers you to be foolish).

For past time, *must have* is used:

It *must have* been late when he came.

447. ***Would*** denotes:

(1) Habitual action in the past:

Every evening I *would* walk five miles.
People *would* come many miles to see him.

(2) Determination:

I simply *would* not listen to him any longer.
He *would* come in spite of our objections.

(3) Willingness to do something:

He *would* help you if he could.
I *would* come if I were able.

(4) Simple futurity (in the second and third persons—see Sec. 456):

They *would* be arrested if they came.
You *would* find him congenial if you knew him better.

(5) A wish:

Would that I were there!
Would that tomorrow were here!

This use is largely oratorical or poetical. The ordinary form is, "I *wish* that I were there."

Note 1. In sequence with a verb in the past or past perfect tense *would* may represent a *will* used in direct discourse: "He said that he *would* call" (direct discourse, "I *will* call").

Note 2. *Would* may be used with a subject in the first, second, or third person in all the instances cited above, except (4).

448. ***Should*** denotes:

(1) Duty or obligation—equivalent to *ought to; should* indicates a weaker degree of obligation than that expressed by *must:*

I *should* be there at this minute.
You *should* give him the money.
He *should* not work so hard.

(2) Inference:

He *should* be at home by this time (from the time that has elapsed, I infer that he is probably there).
We *should* arrive before dark, if everything goes well.

(Compare the use of *must* to emphasize an inference of this sort—see Sec. 446 (2)).

(3) Simple futurity—in the first person (see Sec. 456):

I am sure that I *should* have a good time if I went.
I *should* be glad to talk with him.

(4) For the use of *should* as a subjunctive equivalent in clauses expressing condition, necessity, concession, and purpose, see Sec. 443.

Note 1. In sequence with a verb in the past or past perfect tense *should* may represent a *shall* used in direct discourse: "I said that I *should* be glad to see him" (direct discourse, "I *shall* be glad to see him").

Note 2. *Should* may be used with a subject in the first, second, or third person in all the cases cited above, except (3).

Distinction between *Shall* and *Will*

449. The distinctions between *shall* and *will* are not so rigidly observed now as they once were, the modern tendency being to use *will* in a number of cases where *shall* was formerly required. Certain differences, however, are still recognized by careful speakers and writers.

450. ***Shall.*** In the **First Person** *shall* denotes simple futurity—the fact that something is going to occur.

I *shall go* to town on Saturday.

451. In the **Second and Third Persons** *shall* denotes determination or a command on the part of the *speaker:*

You (he) *shall go* to school (I am determined that you (he) shall go).

Note. In "polite" commands *will* is frequently used:

You *will* report for duty tomorrow.

452. ***Will.*** In the **First Person** *will* always denotes willingness, determination, or a promise:

I *will come* when you call.
We *will go* in spite of this fact.

453. In the **Second and Third Persons** *will* may denote

(1) Simple futurity:

You *will find* him at home.
She *will be* here tomorrow.

(2) Willingness or determination on the part of the *doer* of the action:

Of course, you (he) *will help* in this work.
You (he) *will eat* pie for breakfast (that is, persist in eating pie).

Notice the difference between the *doer* here and the *speaker* in Sec. 451.

454. Mistakes most frequently occur in expressing simple futurity. Note the distinction: Simple futurity is expressed by *shall* in the first person (Sec. 450), by *will* in the second and third persons (Sec. 453 (1)):

I *shall* come.
You *will* come.
He *will* come.

455. ***Shall* and *Will* in Questions.** In questions the

form that is anticipated in the answer is used in all persons:

Shall I pay this bill? (You *shall*—command).
Will I have some candy? (I *will*—willingness).
Shall you be there? (I *shall*—futurity).
Will you accept the gift? (I *will*—willingness).
Shall he bring the book? (He *shall*—command).
Will he go with me? (He *will*—willingness).

456. *Should* and *Would*. In expressing simple futurity, *should* and *would* are subject to the same rule as that given for *shall* and *will* (see Sec. 454):

I *should* think that he would be tired.
I *should* be glad to meet him.
You *would* receive a hearty welcome.
He *would* find the book interesting.

For other uses of *should* and *would*, see Secs. 447–8.

WEAK AND STRONG VERBS

IRREGULAR FORMS OF WEAK VERBS

457. For a preliminary discussion of strong verbs and weak verbs, see Secs. 168 ff. In that discussion it was stated that weak verbs form their past tense and past participle by adding *-ed, -d,* or *-t* to the present tense.

458. Many weak verbs have irregular forms:

(1) In addition to adding *-ed, -d,* or *-t,* some weak verbs also change the vowel, and in some cases other letters as well:

Present	Past	Past Participle
tell	told	told
teach	taught	taught
seek	sought	sought

Note. In some instances the change in vowel is merely a shift from a long to a short vowel: as, *creep, crept; leave, left.*

(2) Some weak verbs which end in *d* or *t* in the present

tense do not add another, *-d* or *-t* in the past tense and past participle:

Present	Past	Past Participle
shed	shed	shed
rid	rid	rid
set	set	set

(a) One group of verbs changes the *d* of the present tense to *t* in the other two forms:

Present	Past	Past Participle
bend	bent	bent
build	built	built

(b) A second group shows a shift from a long to a short vowel: for example from a long *e* (it may be spelled *ee* or *ea*) to a short *e:*

Present	Past	Past Participle
bleed	bled	bled
lead	led	led
meet	met	met

Note. The strong verb *be* is very irregular: *is, was, been.* It consists of forms from three originally separate verbs.

(3) The weak verbs *have* and *make* change the *v* and *k* to *d:* as, *have, had, had; make, made, made.*

MIXED STRONG AND WEAK VERBS

459. Some verbs have both strong and weak forms for either the past tense or the past participle, or for both. In some instances the two forms have different meanings:

Present	Past	Past Participle
wake	woke, waked	waked
thrive	thrived, throve	thrived, thriven
swell	swelled	swelled, swollen
prove	proved	proved, proven
show	showed	showed, shown
hang	hung, hanged *	hung, hanged *

* The form *hanged* is used only for execution by hanging.

460. Thus the line of demarcation between strong and weak verbs is not always clearly drawn. In fact, there is constantly at work a tendency to bring weak forms into originally strong verbs, and vice versa. This tendency is illustrated by the habit among illiterate speakers of substituting the weak forms *growed* and *throwed* for the correct strong forms *grew* and *threw*. These extreme substitutions probably will never be regarded as correct, but the process is similar to that by which the mixture of forms described above has been produced. Some of the substitutions gradually force themselves into good use and are finally accepted by everyone. Thus in the verb *prove* the strong past participle *proven* has gradually won its way to a place alongside the original weak form *proved*. Grammarians still prefer the latter, but there is no serious objection to *proven*.

SOME TROUBLESOME VERBS

461. Mistakes in the use of the past tense and past participle are common. Some are so crude that only the illiterate, or grossly careless, speaker would be guilty of making them; others are found in the speech of fairly well educated people. The mistakes are of various sorts, but the majority of them may be traced to one of two causes:

(1) **Confusion of One Tense Form with Another.** This mistake is illustrated in expressions like "I *seen* it" and "I *done* it," in which the past participles *seen* and *done* are misused for the past tenses *saw* and *did*.

(2) **False Analogy.** This means that a form of one verb is made to correspond with that of another which is similar in appearance. Thus the incorrect past tense forms *growed* and *throwed* are the result of false analogy with words like *flowed* and *glowed*, which are the correct past tenses for *flow* and *glow*. Likewise, the use of *dove* for *dived*, as in

"I *dove* into the water," is due to the influence of verbs like *drive, drove; strive, strove.*

List of Verbs

462. A list of troublesome verbs is given below. It includes not only some of those in which the mistakes discussed above are frequently made, but also others which for various reasons cause difficulty:

Present	Past	Past Participle
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked
bear	bore	borne, born
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
beseech	besought	besought
bid	bade	bidden (to order)
bid	bid	bid (to offer)
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
burst	burst	burst (not *bursted*)
cast	cast	cast
creep	crept	crept
deal	dealt	dealt
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten
go	went	gone (not *had went*)
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
hide	hid	hidden
know	knew	known
lay	laid	laid

Present	Past	Past Participle
lead	led	led
lie	lay	lain
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
loose	loosed	loosed
lose	lost	lost
pay	paid	paid
prove	proved	proved, proven
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slide	slid	slid, slidden
slink	slunk	slunk
sow	sowed	sowed, sown
speak	spoke	spoken
spin	spun	spun
spit	spit	spit
swell	swelled	swelled, swollen
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke, waked	woke, waked
write	wrote	written

Note. For the past tense or past participle of some of these verbs, there is an alternative form which may be used instead of the one given in the table. Thus *beat* has for its past participle both *beaten* and *beat; forget* has *forgotten* and *forgot.* The choice sometimes depends on the context, but in general the word listed above is preferable. For the other forms the student may consult the dictionary.

AGREEMENT BETWEEN SUBJECT AND VERB

463. A verb must agree with its subject in person and number. (For a general discussion, see Sec. 106.) In the following sections some special constructions are considered.

464. Compound Subjects. A compound subject connected by *and, both—and, not only—but also,* and similar conjunctions, requires a plural verb:

The soldier and the sailor *were* in uniform.
Chicago, Detroit, and Gary *are* industrial cities.
Both the house and the barn *were* destroyed.
Not only the captain but also his lieutenant *have* been captured.

Note. When the two parts of the subject refer to the same thing or person, a singular verb is used: "His teacher and friend *is* to be with him."

465. A compound subject connected by *or, either—or, neither—nor* takes a singular verb if the separate parts of the subject are singular; a plural verb if the separate parts are plural:

The foreman or his assistant *is* always in the office.
Either the miller or his son *was* responsible.
Neither the employers nor the workmen *were* satisfied.

(a) When the separate parts of the subject are of different numbers or persons the verb is usually made to agree with the nearer part of the subject:

Neither the apple nor the *peaches were* ripe.
Neither the peaches nor the *apple was* ripe.
Either Frank or *you are* guilty.
Either you or *Frank is* guilty.

466. A Collective Noun as Subject. A collective noun sometimes takes a singular verb, sometimes a plural verb. The general rule is that a singular verb is used when the

group indicated by the collective noun is acting as a unit; a plural verb when the members of the group are acting as individuals:

The jury *has* agreed on the verdict (acting as a unit).
The jury *were* divided in their opinions (regarded as individuals).

467. This rule, however, is not strictly observed. Often in a given sentence a singular or a plural verb may be used interchangeably without any serious difference in meaning:

The army *was* (or *were*) scattered in every direction.
The herd *was* (or *were*) grazing on the vast range.

In such instances the choice is determined largely by the writer's feeling as to which combination makes the better sound. In case of doubt it is usually safer to choose the singular.

468. A *With*-Phrase. A *with*-phrase does not make a subject plural:

The general, *with his staff*, is to be present.

469. *Everybody, Each.* The pronouns *everybody, every one, somebody, some one, anybody, any one,* and words modified by *every* or *each,* are always singular, and when used as a subject require a singular verb:

Everybody *was* ready.
Anybody *is* able to do the work.
Every detail *was* perfect.
Every man, woman, and child in the town *was* present.
Each street and alley *is* paved.

470. *Some, Half,* etc. *Some, part, half, quarter,* and similar words take a singular or a plural verb, according to whether the meaning is singular or plural:

Some of the guests *were* late in arriving.
Some of the sugar *was* unfit for use.
Part of the soldiers *have* been discharged.

Part of the building *has* been wrecked.
Half of the questions *were* unanswered.
Half of the city *was* in ruins.

471. *None.* *None* takes a singular or a plural verb, according to whether the meaning is singular or plural:

None of the sugar *was* wasted.
None of the men *were* punished.

Some grammarians hold that *none* is always singular, since it is a contraction of *no one,* and that a singular verb should always be used with it. This practice is permissible, but the resulting combination is sometimes awkward. The rule as given above represents the better usage.

472. *Number.* *Number* takes a singular verb when it is preceded by the article *the;* a plural verb when preceded by *a:*

The number of members *was* increased to fifty.
A number of new members *were* elected.

This rule, of course, does not apply when *number* is used as in "A number *was* written on the paper."

473. *It.* *It* always takes a singular verb, even when the verb is a copula followed by a plural noun:

It *is* a fact.
It *is* the citizens who are responsible.

474. *There.* The expletive *there* (see Sec. 286–7) is followed by a singular or plural verb, according to whether the real subject, which comes after the verb, is singular or plural:

There *is* a good *reason* for the change.
There *are* several good *reasons* for the change.

475. Plural Form, Singular Meaning. When the subject is plural in form but singular in meaning, the usage varies.

(1) With expressions indicating distance, amount, and the

like, either a singular or a plural verb is generally permissible:

Ten pounds of sugar *is* (*are*) allowed to each customer.
A thousand dollars *has* (*have*) been spent in improvements.
Ten miles of concrete *was* (*were*) laid.
Four yards of material *is* (*are*) needed.
Fifty cents *is* the price of the book (here the verb must be singular).

(2) With the names of books, plays, etc., a singular verb is used:

"The Principles of Geology" is used as a text.
"Antony and Cleopatra" was the first play presented.

(3) With plural nouns used as words, not as names of objects, a singular verb is required:

Horses is a common noun.

(4) With certain nouns which have only a plural form, the usage is as follows:

(a) A singular verb is used with:

molasses, news, physics, economics, mathematics, ethics, metaphysics.

(b) A plural verb is used with:

riches, proceeds, tongs, pincers, scissors, trousers, goods, athletics, nuptials, obsequies.

Note. With *athletics,* some writers use a singular verb, but the plural is preferable.

(c) Either a singular or a plural verb is used, according to the meaning, with *means, series, species,* and *statistics:*

this means *is, these* means *are; this* series *is, these* series *are; this* species *is, these* species *are; statistics is* a science, *these statistics are* correct.

CHAPTER XVI

ADVERBS

For preceding discussions of adverbs and adverbial phrases and clauses, see Chapter V, and Secs. 198 (3), 229 ff.

476. Any word or group of words used to modify a verb, adjective, or another adverb is an adverb.

The principal constructions that may be employed as adverbs are:

1. Regular Adverbs: "He walked *rapidly.*"

2. Prepositions without Objects (see Sec. 183): "Come *up.*" "They walked *before.*"

3. Nouns denoting Time, Distance, Weight, etc. (see Sec. 28): "The sugar weighed *a pound.*"

4. Participial Phrases, in a Dual Relation (see Sec. 200): "*Hearing the cry,* he ran to the door."

5. Infinitives and Infinitive Phrases (see Secs. 154, 198 (3)): "He came *to play.*" "The visitors went *to see the house.*"

6. Prepositional Phrases (see Sec. 198 (3)): "The doors were closed *at noon.*"

7. Clauses (see Secs. 229 ff.): "He ate *because he was hungry.*"

8. Elliptical Clauses (see Sec. 292): "*While here,* he visited his uncle" (*while he was here*).

477. Nouns Ending in -s. In colloquial English a few nouns ending in *-s* and having, therefore, the appearance of plural nouns, are used as adverbs:

He sleeps *nights.*
They work *Sundays.*

Historically, these are not plural nouns. They are survivals of an Old English genitive case ending in *-es,* which, in addition to other functions, was once used in an adverbial sense to indicate time. In a later period of the language, the *e* was dropped from the ending, which became simply *-s;* and that process gave us the present forms. The same *s* appears in words like *always, nowadays* (from the old genitive case of the nouns *way* and *day*), which are now regarded as true adverbs.

Note. Our modern possessive case ending, *-'s,* is also a contraction of the former genitive case ending, *-es.* In this case, the apostrophe is used to show the omission of the *e.*

478. Pronouns with Adjectives. In sentences like the following, the expressions *his best* and *our hardest* are, in effect, adverbs of degree or manner, and may be parsed as such, each group as a whole being considered as the adverb:

He tried *his best* to please them.
We fought *our hardest.*

If we break up the groups into their parts, we are confronted with the difficulty of how to classify the pronouns *his* and *our.* They can hardly be called adverbs modifying the adverbs *best* and *hardest,* for it is not in the nature of pronouns to modify such words. The explanation of the origin of these expressions seems to be that they are elliptical constructions resulting from the omission of cognate objects (see Sec. 300): "He tried his best *try* (or *attempt*)" and "We fought our hardest *fight,*" in which *his* and *our,* as well as *best* and *hardest,* are adjectives modifying the cognate objects.

For the use of *but* as an adverb, equivalent to *only,* in sentences like "They received *but* few presents," see Sec. 539 (2).

For constructions like "the more, the merrier," in which *the* is used as an adverb, see Sec. 379.

USES

For the ordinary uses of adverbs, see Sec. 172.

479. Modifying a Phrase or Clause. An adverb may modify an adverbial or adjective phrase or clause:

(1) Adverbial phrases and clauses:

We arrived *almost* at the appointed time.
He came to Boston *long* before the war.
He sat *exactly* under the window.
They left *soon* after the contract was signed.
I refused *only* because he was impudent.

(2) Adjective phrases and clauses:

A man *almost* in rags met us at the door.
He lives in the house *right* across the river.
We especially enjoyed the hour *just* before the sun went down.

480. In some of these sentences the adverb seems to modify the connective itself, rather than the phrase or clause, and this relation is recognized by some grammarians:

He sat *exactly under* the window.
They left *soon after* the contract was signed.

481. Independent Adverbs. The so-called Independent Adverbs modify the thought of an entire sentence, rather than any single verb, adjective, or adverb.

These adverbs usually stand at or near the beginning of the sentence, and in addition to their adverbial function, they have something of the nature of connectives, in that they help to make a smooth transition between the thought of the preceding sentence and that of the new one:

Happily, we were prepared for the emergency.
Obviously, this is a serious situation.
Unfortunately, he has lost his deed for the property.

482. To this class also belong *yes* and *no* when used as in the following sentences:

Yes, I will go.
No, you are mistaken.

Note. The difference between the independent adverb and the regular adverb may be seen by comparing the following sentences:

Happily, we were prepared for the emergency (independent).
Then they were *happily* married (regular).

483. An independent adverb may, through ellipsis, stand as a complete sentence. This construction is especially common in answer to questions:

Can you come? *Yes.* (*Yes,* I can come.)
Do you believe this? *Certainly.* (*Certainly,* I believe it.)

484. ***Not.*** A peculiar use of the adverb *not* occurs in certain kinds of questions:

This is true, is it *not?* (*isn't* it?)
He has gone, has he *not?* (*hasn't* he?)
Will you *not* come in? (*won't* you?)

In these sentences *not* has no negative meaning; it anticipates an affirmative answer, an approval of the statement which precedes it. When a negative answer is expected, the *not* is placed in the first clause: "This is *not* true, is it?" When the *not* is omitted in both clauses, the attitude of the speaker is neutral: the answer may be either affirmative or negative: "This is true, is it?"

485. Sometimes the *not* is employed to express surprise that some expected or hoped-for occurrence has not come to pass: *"Hasn't* he gone yet?" Here the actual answer that is expected is "No," but the affirmative element is nevertheless present, for the implication is that the answer *ought to be* "Yes."

486. ***Here.*** A curious use of *here* is seen in the following sentence:

Our life *here* is pleasant.

Here is a regular adverb, but it modifies the noun *life*. The explanation of this construction probably is that *here* is the remains of an adjective clause *which we live here*, in which *here* was a pure adverb, modifying the verb *live*. Through the common process of ellipsis the rest of the clause was dropped, and only the adverb remained as the modifier of *life*.

There may be used in the same way: "Our life *there* was pleasant."

487. The Expletive *There*. The use of *there* as a regular adverb of place should be carefully distinguished from its use as an expletive (see Secs. 286–287):

There is a real man (adverb).
There is a man in the room (expletive).

In the first sentence *there* is an adverb of place, meaning "in that place." In the second, it is an expletive standing for the subject. ("Expletive" means "a filler.") The sentence is equivalent to "A man is in the room."

488. Short Adverbs. In certain expressions, especially in brief commands and exhortations, a short form of the adverb is used instead of the regular one ending in *-ly*.

These adverbs are identical in form with the corresponding adjectives (see Sec. 174).

Drive *slow* (instead of *slowly*).
Speak *louder* (instead of *more loudly*).
Live *right* (instead of *rightly*).

This construction is used because it gives emphasis to the command. Notice that in other sentences, where emphasis is not needed, the regular adverb is employed: "They drove *slowly* over the bridge."

These short forms are sometimes condemned on the ground that they are adjectives employed where adverbs are required. Historically, however, they are not adjectives, but are true ad-

verbs. In Anglo-Saxon, a number of adverbs had the same form as the corresponding adjectives, except that the suffix *-e* was added. This ending was later dropped, with the result that the adverb and the adjective were identical in form. From these words our short adverbs have descended.

489. *Very* and *Very Much.* *Very,* without *much,* is used regularly with ordinary adjectives and with present participles: as, *very sick, very cold, very tight, very dark; very exciting, very interesting, very annoying:*

She is *very sick.*

490. *Very much,* not *very* alone, is used regularly with past participles: as, *very much disappointed, very much excited, very much interested:*

She was *very much disappointed* with his reply (not *very disappointed*).

491. With a few past participles, however, which are so frequently employed as regular adjectives that their participial origin is forgotten, the *much* may be omitted: as, *very tired, very drunk:*

They were *very tired* when they reached home.

For the use of a predicate adjective, instead of an adverb, in sentences like "The flower smelled *sweet*" and "The prisoner looked *sullen*," see Sec. 357.

For the use of an adverb as the object of a preposition, as in "I have not been there since *then*," see Sec. 532 (3).

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBIAL ELEMENTS

492. The classification of adverbial elements is difficult for two reasons: (1) they cover a wide and varied range of meanings; (2) a given clause or phrase in a given sentence may express a mixed relation: for example, both time and reason or both degree and comparison (see Sec. 493).

The meaning of an adverbial element may vary according to the context—the nature of the surrounding circumstances and especially the nature of the verb or adjective which it modifies; and since the context is capable of almost infinite variation, the shades of meaning expressed by adverbial elements are correspondingly numerous. Hence, the classification given below attempts to cover only the most important adverbial groups, and even in these some of the illustrative sentences may show another relationship in addition to the one indicated by the group in which they are placed.

493. Mixed Adverbial Relations. Adverbial elements sometimes have a mixed or overlapping meaning. In some of these instances there is only a suggestion of the secondary meaning; in others it is fairly prominent. A few typical examples are:

It was foolish to attempt this *when so many policemen were present* (time and reason).

The hour for closing having arrived, the employees left the office (time and reason).

It is colder now *than it was this morning* (degree and comparison).

It was so cold *that the water froze in the tank* (degree and result).

He strode through the house, *leaving a muddy footprint at each step* (accompanying circumstances and result).

The troops crept up the hill, *firing and then stopping to reload their muskets* (accompanying circumstances and manner).

He spoke *so that everyone could hear* (manner and result).

494. Dual Adverbial and Adjectival Relations. Frequently a construction has the dual nature of an adverb and an adjective:

Realizing the danger, the driver stopped. (The participle *realizing,* as an adjective, modifies *driver;* the whole phrase,

as an adverb, modifies *stopped*—it tells why he stopped.) (See Sec. 200.)

Weak from his effort, John fell to the ground. (As an adjective, *weak* modifies *John;* as an adverb it tells why he fell.)

The beam was planed *square.* (*Square* is a predicate adjective modifying *beam,* but it is also similar in meaning to an adverbial clause of result: "until it was *square.*")

Our life *here* is very pleasant (see Sec. 486).

Adverbial Elements Indicating Time

For a previous discussion, see Sec. 231.

495. Typical forms of adverbial elements indicating time are shown in the following sentences:

They will come *today* (single adverb).
He is going *now.*
He will be here *Sunday.*
They work *at night* (phrase).
He has been here *since Thursday.*
The address being finished, the audience left the room (nominative absolute).
Breakfast over, we left the house (elliptical—"breakfast *being* over").
They will pay you *as soon as they return* (clause).
While we were at dinner, the door bell rang.
Now that you have finished, you may help me.
Once you get the principle, the rest is easy.
While here, he called upon his former friends (elliptical—"while *he was* here").

Note. Some of these sentences carry a suggestion of *reason* or of *condition,* in addition to *time.*

496. The chief conjunctions used to introduce clauses of time are *when, while, since, before, after, until, as soon as, as long as, now that, once,* etc.

497. Modifications of the Time Relation. (1) Most adverbial elements of time answer the question *when?* and in-

dicate the definite time when the action of the main verb takes place. Some of them, however, answer the question *how long?* and show the duration or extent of the action:

They watched *until the sun rose.*
He had been a gambler *from childhood.*

(2) In the following sentence the phrase shows the duration of the effect or result of the action (*for how long?*):

The flag was hauled down *for the night.*

Note. A time element used as an adverb is not to be confused with one used as an adjective to modify a noun which in itself indicates time (see Sec. 228):

They chose an hour *when the streets were deserted* (adjective clause modifying the noun *hour*).

Adverbial Elements Indicating Place

See also Sec. 232.

498. The following sentences show various kinds of adverbial elements indicating place:

They live *here* (single adverb).
He has gone *home.*
He works *in the foundry* (prepositional phrase).
They live *by the river.*
He has a free hand *in the running of the factory.*
We met them *going to town* (participial phrase).
They discovered the fugitive *hiding in a barn.*
They found the book *where they left it* (clause).
I will go *wherever you wish.*

499. Adverbs of place may indicate *whence* (place from which) as well as *where:*

They came *from the country.*

Note. Adverbial elements of place should be carefully distinguished from adjective elements modifying nouns which in themselves indicate place:

This is the spot *where the house formerly stood* (adjective clause).

Adverbial Elements Indicating Manner

See also Sec. 233.

500. Manner may be indicated as follows:

He walked *rapidly* (single adverb).
She lived *alone* in the big house.
The manager spoke *with decision* (phrase).
He obtained money *by writing books.*
They counted the applicants, *left to right* (elliptical phrase —"from left to right").
The boy came *running* (participle in a dual relation—see Sec. 494).
She acts *as if she were tired* (clause).
He ate *as though he were hungry.*
He did *as he was directed.*
John served five years *as a soldier* (elliptical clause—"as a soldier would serve").
This building was pointed out *as one of the sights of the city* (as one of the sights of the city would be pointed out).

Some participles and prepositional phrases showing "accompanying circumstances" have something of the value of adverbs of manner (see Sec. 527).

For the use of the subjunctive mood after *as if* and *as though* in clauses of manner, see Sec. 137 (3).

Adverbial Elements Indicating Degree

501. Adverbial elements expressing degree cover a wide range of meanings, but they are all distinguished by the fact that they tell *how much, how little, how far,* or some other *how* relation (excluding *manner*). They include various phrases and clauses which in addition to indicating degree also express comparison or result (see Secs. 234, 235). The distinction between degree, comparison, and result is, in many cases, so difficult to define that in the preliminary discussion in Part I, it seemed advisable to put them all into one general group. In the present classification they are

treated separately, though in some of the examples given there may be an overlapping in meaning.

502. Degree may be indicated as follows:

He ran a *mile* (single adverb).
The fish weighed a *pound.*
She was *very* tired.
They are *almost* ready.
The boat was *entirely* submerged.
His features were harsh *even to ugliness* (prepositional phrase).
We have enough cloth *for a coat.*
His wardrobe was limited *to one suit and an old overcoat.*
He is too old *for this position.*
The picture is large enough *to fill the space* (infinitive phrase).
He is too small *to do this work.*
We have enough cloth *to make a coat.*
This burden is more *than I can bear* (clause).
He works as fast *as he can.*
He will come as soon *as possible* (elliptical—"as soon as it is possible for him to come").

503. Clauses and phrases of degree are generally used after *so, so much, enough, too,* or some similar expression.

Adverbs of degree modify adjectives and adverbs much more frequently than do the other classes of adverbs, with the exception of those in Sec. 529.

Adverbial Elements Indicating Comparison

504. An adverbial element may indicate comparison between two actions, conditions, etc.:

Life had been hard with him, *as it is apt to be with those who live on the frontier.*
They plowed with oxen, *just as their forefathers had done.*
There are fewer here *than we expected.*
He was the least concerned *of all those present.*
He was not as young *as I thought.*

She writes better *than she talks.*
John is larger *than his brother.*
You are worse *than a thief.*

The first sentence makes a comparison between his life and that of others in like circumstances; the second, between their methods of plowing and those of their forefathers.

In some of the sentences, there is an idea of degree (*how much*) combined with that of comparison. These mixed relations may be classified under either adverbs of degree or adverbs of comparison.

505. Certain expressions indicating comparison show extreme ellipsis:

The sooner, the better.
The more, the merrier.

Adverbial Elements Indicating Result

506. An adverbial element may indicate the result of an action:

The railroads have been completely rebuilt, *so that it is now possible to travel in safety.*
The wraps were strewn in confusion about the room, *the result being that there was considerable delay when the guests were ready to leave.*
The ship was dashed upon the rocks, *with the result that the cargo was lost.*
He used this material in such a way *as to produce a beautiful effect.*

507. This relation is common in participial phrases:

He fell over the cliff, *breaking his arm and otherwise injuring himself.*
The horse stopped suddenly, *throwing his rider to the ground.*

These constructions are sometimes difficult to distinguish from participles indicating accompanying circumstances (see Sec. 527).

508. An adverbial element frequently expresses both result and degree (see Secs. 234–5 for a brief discussion and additional examples):

The audience was so noisy *that the speaker could not be heard.*
He arrived early enough *to catch the train.*
They were so kind *as to reserve a section for us.*

These mixed relations may be classified under either adverbs of result or adverbs of degree.

509. A subordinate clause of result introduced by *so that* must not be confused with a co-ordinate clause of consequence (see Sec. 219), or with a subordinate clause of purpose introduced by the same conjunction (see Sec. 515).

Adverbial Elements Indicating Reason

See also Sec. 236.

510. Reason or cause may be indicated as follows:

He was punished *for breaking the window* (prepositional phrase).
The senator died *of apoplexy.*
Because of his lameness, he was unable to march.
Seeing the danger, the driver leaped from the car (participial phrase).
The horse, *frightened by the explosion,* ran away.
The weather being warm, all the windows were opened (nominative absolute).
He was discharged *because he was dishonest* (clause).
As we were already late, we dared not wait any longer.
Since there is no alternative, we must accept his offer.

511. A clause of reason introduced by *that* may modify an adjective:

I am glad *that you escaped unharmed.*

512. The chief conjunctions used with clauses of reason

are *because, as, since, for, for the reason that, on the ground that, in that, seeing that, considering that.*

513. Some adverbial clauses give the reason, not for the fact itself, as in the preceding examples, but for our knowledge of the fact: that is, they tell our reason for thinking that the statement is true:

Our neighbors have returned, *for I can hear them talking.*
It is a cold day. *for the windows are frosted.*

In the first sentence, for example, the fact that I can hear our neighbors talking is not the reason why they returned; it is the reason for my thinking that they have returned.

514. The thought expressed by a complex sentence containing a subordinate clause of reason, may also be expressed by a compound sentence containing a co-ordinate clause of consequence (see Sec. 219). Compare the following sentences:

As it was a long way to the next settlement, we camped for the night (subordinate clause of reason).
It was a long way to the next settlement; *therefore we camped for the night* (co-ordinate clause of consequence).

Adverbial Elements Indicating Purpose

See also Sec. 237.

515. Purpose may be indicated as follows:

They have come *for the money* (prepositional phrase).
We went West *with the idea of making a fortune.*
She ransacked her memory *for incidents of their early years.*
They came *to get their wraps* (infinitive phrase).
They drove fast *in order to catch the train.*
They took care *to avoid being seen by the officers.*
He worked late *so that he could finish the book that night* (clause).
They bought the house *in order that they might have a comfortable home.*

They took care *that the secret should not become known.*
Men sow *that they may reap.*
Take heed *lest you fall* (*lest* means *that—not*).

Adverbial Elements Indicating Condition

See also Sec. 238.

516. Condition may be indicated as follows:

Without a fire, you can do nothing (prepositional phrase, equivalent to "if you do not have a fire").
With a little more capital, they would be sure to succeed (if they had a little more capital).
To hear him talk, you would think that he was a man of importance (infinitive phrase, equivalent to "if you were to judge from his talk").
The result, *considered from your point of view,* is satisfactory (participial phrase—equivalent to "if it is considered").
They will finish the work tomorrow, *weather permitting* (nominative absolute, equivalent to "if the weather permits").
If that is true, we have nothing more to say (clause).
Whether you are young or old, you will enjoy this music (if you are young or if you are old).
I will go, *provided he pays my expenses* (if he pays).
He cannot succeed *unless he works harder* (if he does not work harder).
If possible, he will go today (elliptical clause—"if it is possible").
He will be here, *rain or shine* (if it rain or if it shine—see Sec. 136 (1), *note 1*).

517. The chief introductory words are *if, unless* (*= if—not*), *whether—or, supposing that, provided, provided that, on condition that, in case that.*

518. The clause may be without a conjunction or other formal introductory word, in which case the order of the words is inverted:

Had he come, he would have seen me (if he had come).
Should the plan be successful, he will adopt it.

519. Condition may be expressed by means of a co-ordinate clause having its verb in the imperative mood (this construction is to be classed as a main clause, not as an adverbial clause):

Ask him, and he will tell you (if you ask him.)
Bring me the package, and I will pay you.

520. Sometimes the conditional clause is used alone as an exclamation, the main clause being omitted:

If he would only come! (If he would only come, I should be satisfied.)

521. A conditional element may give the condition under which a statement is made, rather than the condition under which an action is performed:

The game, *as I remember it,* was played in Jackson Park.
I was beginning to feel "groggy," *as it were.*
His excuse, *as it were,* is interesting.

Thus the first sentence means "The game, *if I remember it correctly,* was played in Jackson Park." The second sentence is about equivalent to "I was beginning to feel 'groggy,' *if I may be permitted to use that expression.*"

Note. These constructions are often classified as parenthetical expressions.

Adverbial Elements Indicating Concession

See also Sec. 239.

522. Concession may be indicated as follows:

With all his faults I love him still (phrase, equivalent to "Although he has many faults").
I would not exchange places with him *for all his money.*
Notwithstanding the obvious unfairness of the offer, we were forced to accept it.
In spite of his boasted strength, he was unable to move the weight.

Although he had the money, he would not spend it (clause).
Though he was the king's messenger, he was harshly treated.
Even if he is wealthy, he is not happy.
This rod, *though small,* is very strong (elliptical clause—"though it is small").

523. Sometimes the order of words in the clause is inverted, in which case the conjunction may be within the clause or may be lacking:

Strange though it may seem, the meeting was a success.
Strong as he was, he could not lift the stone.
Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home.
Try as he would, he could not reach the goal.
Be that as it may, I cannot go with you.

524. Clauses of concession may be introduced by the compound relative pronouns, or various other words ending in *-ever:*

Whatever we do, our opponent will be elected.
However much we give, it will not be sufficient.
Wherever he may try to hide, his enemies will find him.
Whichever road he takes, the journey will be difficult.

525. Sometimes, through ellipsis, only the introductory word remains:

Any reply *whatever* will be welcome (whatever it may be).
He objects to any noise *whatsoever* (whatsoever it may be).

526. The concessive relation is sometimes very similar to that expressed by co-ordinate clauses showing contrast (those introduced by *but, however,* etc. See Sec. 217). Compare, for instance:

Although he was large, he was not strong (concession—subordinate).
He was large, *but* he was not strong (contrast—co-ordinate).

For the uses of the subjunctive mood in concessive clauses, see Sec. 136 (2).

Adverbial Elements Indicating Accompanying Circumstances

527. An adverbial element may indicate accompanying circumstances: that is, certain actions or circumstances that occur at the same time as the action represented by the verb:

He rambled on foot through France, *playing a flute for a supper and a bed.*
Then he went to Leyden, still *pretending to study medicine.*
His father died, *leaving a mere pittance.*
He remained there five years, *living the life of a country squire.*
His relatives, *with much satisfaction,* saw him leave the village.
He returned *without a penny.*

528. A nominative absolute phrase may indicate accompanying circumstances:

The boat lay at anchor, *its flag flapping idly in the breeze.*

Note. Many of these constructions also have something of the nature of adjectives.

Adverbial Complements of Adjectives

529. Most of the preceding classes of adverbial elements are used primarily to modify verbs, the most important exception being adverbs of degree, which regularly may qualify not only verbs but also adjectives and adverbs. There are also a large number of adverbial phrases and clauses which modify adjectives. A few of these approximate in meaning some of the classes described above, but in general they show such a wide and varied range of relationships that it is almost impossible to bring them under any significant scheme of classification. Accordingly they are brought together into one general class and called simply "Adverbial Complements of Adjectives." A number of typical examples are given below:

(1) Prepositional Phrases:

It is very simple *in construction.*
He was hospitable *to strangers.*
The style is worthy *of the subject matter.*
This place is convenient *to transportation.*
The children are dependent *on charity.*
She was suspicious *by nature.*
The cashier was proof *against temptation.*
His thoughts were free *from jealousy.*
James was angry *at his companions.*
The officer, eager *for revenge,* began an investigation.
The colonel, confident *of success,* ordered a general attack.
They found the guide dead *from exposure.*

(2) Infinitives or Infinitive Phrases:

This print is easy *to read.*
They were glad *to get the letter.*
He was quick *to resent the insult.*
We found the company about ready *to start.*
A man able *to do hard work* is needed at once.

(3) Clauses (see Sec. 240):

I am sure *that he is honest.*
We feel confident *that the plan will be successful.*
The clerk, jubilant *because he had been promoted,* started to work with a will.

CHAPTER XVII

PREPOSITIONS

For a preliminary discussion of prepositions, see Chapter VI.

530. Other Parts of Speech Used as Prepositions. (1) *Like* is used as a preposition in sentences such as:

He looks *like* his father.
In many respects she is *like* her sister.

In the first sentence, *like* is actually an adverb; in the second, it is an adjective; but in each instance it takes an object just as if it were a regular preposition. It may be considered as an elliptical construction with the preposition *unto* omitted: "He looks *like* (*unto*) his father."

Note. Like should not be employed as a conjunction to introduce a clause: "They walked *like* they were tired" (incorrect). Here the proper connective is *as if* or *as though:* "They walked *as if* (*as though*) they were tired" (correct). When used as a connective, *like* must be followed by an object, not by a subject and a verb.

(2) For a discussion of the following constructions used as prepositions, see the sections indicated:

a. *But* in the sense of *except,* Sec. 539 (1).
b. *Other than* in the sense of *except,* Sec. 548.

531. Constructions used as Objects of Prepositions. The object of a preposition is regularly a noun or pronoun in the objective case:

He works in the *factory.*
They have had a letter from *him.*

532. Other constructions, when used as the object, are noun-equivalents:

(1) A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive Case:

Ask for these goods at your *dealer's.*
I prefer your book to *his.*

These constructions are the result of ellipsis: the real object is an omitted noun which is easily understood from the context: "at your dealer's *store,*" "to his *book*" (see Sec. 293 (3)). The form "at your dealer" should not be used. It is an incorrect and unidiomatic construction arising from an attempt to reduce the object of the preposition to the regular objective case.

(2) An Adjective:

This book is suitable for *young* and *old.*

This is another elliptical construction meaning "for young and old *people.*"

(3) An Adverb:

They will come at *once.*
Where do we go from *here?*

(4) A Gerund or Gerundive Phrase:

They are fond of *singing.*
He objected to *buying the car.*

(5) An Infinitive or Infinitive Phrase:

She could do nothing but *wait.*
They had no choice except *to obey the order.*
We intended for *you to come early* (see Sec. 207).

(6) A Prepositional Phrase:

The water came to *within an inch of the top.*
He took the package from *under the table.*

(7) A Clause:

He is interested in *whatever he sees.*
I drew my own conclusions from *what you said.*
We cannot decide on *who should go.*

533. Special Uses of Prepositions. A preposition without an object may be used as a modifier after a noun:

He had come the day *before.*
They went the week *after.*
They live on the floor *above.*
The apartment *below* is for rent.
The life *beyond* is a veiled mystery.
They cautiously felt their way *around.*

These are elliptical constructions equivalent to "the day *before the one named,*" "the apartment *below this one.*" In the first two sentences, they are adverb-equivalents modifying nouns used as adverbs (see Sec. 28); in the last four sentences, they are adjective-equivalents.

534. A preposition without an object is commonly used as an adverb modifying a verb: "He walked *behind*" (see Sec. 183).

535. For a special type of apposition formed with some nouns by means of the preposition *of,* see Sec. 307.

536. A Preposition at the End of a Sentence. The old rule, that a preposition should never be placed at the end of a sentence, is now disregarded by many writers. It is a good rule for the novice to bear in mind, but the writer who has developed a feeling for sentence structure may safely put a preposition in this position when his judgment tells him that he will get a better effect.

As a matter of fact, this construction cannot be avoided in certain sentences, notably in short questions, without sacrificing naturalness and effectiveness. Thus, "What did you ask *for?*" is stronger than "*For* what did you ask?" Other examples are:

Where did you come *from?*
Which one are you interested *in?*
Which boy did he give it *to?*
What does it amount *to?*

CHAPTER XVIII

CONJUNCTIONS

For a preliminary discussion of Conjunctions, see Chapter VII. See also Secs. 220 ff.; 242 ff.

537. Conjunctions are divided into two general classes:

(1) **Co-ordinate Conjunctions,** which connect words, phrases, and clauses of equal rank: as, *and, likewise, in like manner, but, nevertheless, yet, however, on the contrary, or, nor, therefore, hence, accordingly,* etc.

(2) **Subordinate Conjunctions,** which are used to introduce subordinate clauses and to connect them with the words which they modify: as, *if, unless, although, though, that, as, since, for, so, so that, in order that, as if, as though,* etc.

538. Pure subordinate conjunctions, such as those enumerated above, are merely connecting words, and perform no other function in the sentence (see Sec. 243). Sometimes, however, subordinate clauses are introduced, not by pure conjunctions, but by

(1) **Conjunctive Adverbs,** which not only introduce the clause, but also have an adverbial function in the clause (see Sec. 244): as, *when, where, why, while, how.*

(2) **Relative** and **Interrogative Pronouns,** which serve as introductory words and also perform one of the functions of a noun in a clause (see Sec. 245): as, *which, who, that, what.*

539. ***But.*** *But* is ordinarily a co-ordinate conjunction (see Sec. 186), but it may also be used:

(1) As a Preposition, equivalent to *except:*

All *but* John have gone (*except* John).
They had no alternative *but* to go.
He will do nothing *but* talk (see Sec. 433 (3)).
He is anything *but* rich (see Sec. 532 (2)).

(2) As an Adverb, equivalent to *only:*

We have *but* a few copies left.
You have *but* to ask for it.
They can *but* try.

The last sentence is not to be confused with "They *cannot but* try," in which *but* is a preposition (see (1) above). This expression seems to be due to ellipsis of "They cannot do anything *but* (*except*) try."

The expression *cannot help but* is an incorrect form resulting from a confusing of two correct forms: "They *cannot but* try," and "They *cannot help* trying."

(3) As a Relative Pronoun, equivalent to *that—not, who—not:*

There is no one *but* pities him (*who* does *not* pity him).

(4) As a Subordinate Conjunction, equivalent to *but that* or *that—not:*

There is no doubt *but* they are rich (*but that* they are rich).
I didn't know *but* you might be tired.
It never rains *but* it pours (*that* it does *not* pour).
He never goes to the theater *but* he regrets it.

540. *But that.* *But that* is used as a subordinate conjunction:

I don't know *but that* I shall go.
I have no doubt *but that* he will come.

In these sentences, *but* emphasizes the idea in the subordinate clause—it implies greater certainty that what is said there is true or will occur. Compare the following sentences without *but:*

I don't know *that* I shall go.
I have no doubt *that* he will come.

Note. But what should not be used for *but that.* The sentence, "I don't know *but what* he will do it," is incorrect (say *but that*). In general *but what* is correct as a connective only when *but that which* can be substituted for it (*what* is equivalent to *that which* (see Sec. 67)): thus, "I do not know anything *but what* he told me" (*but that which* he told me).

541. *As.* The word *as* presents many difficult problems. Some of its more important uses have been discussed elsewhere under different headings, as indicated in the references below. In most instances, *as* conveys at least a suggestion of an adverbial relation.

542. *As* may be used

(1) To introduce a noun in a sort of apposition, as in "You, *as a stockholder,* must do your part" (see Sec. 306).

(2) To introduce a noun or an adjective used as an objective complement, as in "We selected him *as captain*" (see Sec. 312) and "We regarded him *as* entirely *trustworthy*" (see Sec. 361).

(3) As a relative pronoun, as in "Such papers *as* these (are) must be destroyed" (see Sec. 318).

(4) To introduce adverbial clauses of time, manner, degree, comparison, and reason:

As I was crossing the street, I met a friend.
They did the work *as they were directed.*
A man is as old *as he feels.*
They work as hard *as you do.*
As it was getting late, I hurried home.

543. The following sentences contain adverbial elements, introduced by *as,* which are less regular in form. In some cases, a suggestion of an adverbial relation other than the one indicated is present. Many of the constructions are elliptical.

(1) Manner:

He was regarded *as a vagabond* (as a vagabond is regarded).
This tree will serve us *as a windshield* (as a windshield would serve us).

Let us talk this over *as man to man* (as man would talk to man).
They did the work *as ordered* (as they were ordered to do it).
You must do *as seems best* (as it seems best to do).
They went to class *as usual* this morning (as it was usual for them to go).
The performance will be given *as advertised* (as it was advertised to be given).

(2) Condition:
He has not yet, *as it were*, won his spurs as a writer. (*As it were* has the meaning "if I may be permitted to use that phrase." See Sec. 521.)

(3) Comparison:
He succeeded, *as on other occasions*, in quieting the disturbance (as he succeeded on other occasions).

(4) Degree:
He is not so foolish *as to say* that (degree and condition—"as he would be if he should say that").
Come as early *as possible*.

544. *As to.* *As to* and *as for* are equivalent to *regarding* or *concerning:*

I can say nothing *as to* his bravery (*concerning* his bravery).
As for his honesty, I can speak with conviction.

545. *As well as.* *As well as* may be either a co-ordinate or a subordinate conjunction:

John *as well as* James will be there (co-ordinate).
You must do your work *as well as* you can (subordinate).

546. *Though.* *Though* is sometimes placed at the end of a statement:

He offered me some money. I didn't take it, *though.*
They were unable to open the door; they certainly tried hard, *though.*

In this construction the *though* belongs to a statement preceding the one which it follows. This preceding statement may be in the same sentence or in an earlier one. Thus the

first example given above is equivalent to "*Though* he offered me some money, I didn't take it."

547. *Either.* *Either* may be placed at the end of a statement, in order to express an emphatic negation:

I told him not to go, and he didn't go, *either.*

548. *Other than.* *Than* is generally a conjunction, but the combination *other than* is used as a preposition equivalent to *except:*

No man *other than a knave* would do that (*except* a knave).

APPENDIX

EXERCISE 40

Point out the nouns and noun-equivalents, and tell how they are used in the following sentences (see Chapter XIII):

1. Many professional men, such as lawyers, doctors, and teachers, are interested in making this project a success. 2. It is reported that the members of the committee are unable to agree upon what they should recommend. 3. The new official has been given the title of second vice-president. 4. We must help one another or we shall not succeed. 5. The president appointed the senator from Ohio as minister to France. 6. You can make the price what you will, for everyone knows that this article is very rare. 7. His latest hobby, playing golf, occupies the greater part of his time. 8. The society selected the violet as their official flower, because they considered it a symbol of modesty. 9. The party closed long after midnight, a circumstance which caused a great deal of comment. 10. The audience was told that the speaker of the evening had not arrived. 11. For a quarter of a century he had been living a life of luxury by pandering to the weaknesses of his fellows. 12. By automobile the journey is forty miles longer than by rail. 13. The life of the soldiers over there was hard and exacting. 14. You know thoroughly well how to cast and hammer iron. (Ruskin.) 15. My first impulse on hearing this humble tale of affliction was to visit the cottage of the mourner, and administer pecuniary assistance. (Irving.) 16. To poor people, looking up under moist eyebrows, it seemed a wonder where it all came from. (Stevenson.) 17. Perhaps he had remembered suddenly how fond of boat-sailing she used to be. (Conrad.) 18. The Public, the big Public, is a mechanical and helpless consumer at the mercy of what is supplied to it. (Galsworthy.) 19. Excess of insularity makes a Briton an Imperialist. (Shaw.) 20. They asked no reward for doing this. 21. It was sacrilege that she was witnessing, a prodigious irreverence. (A. Bennett.) 22. It is a pious custom, in some Catholic countries, to honour the memory of saints by votive

lights burnt before their images. (Irving.) 23. The only reward of virtue, is virtue; the only way to have a friend is to be one. (Emerson.) 24. A great many people talk as if this claim of ours, that all things are poetical, were a mere literary ingenuity, a play on words. (Chesterton.) 25. He walked round it till he came to what had been a gate. (Masefield.) 26. A grander monarch, or a more miserable starved wretch than the peasant his subject, you cannot look on. (Thackeray.) 27. Consequently I hate you because I feel myself your inferior, and you despise me and my boots because you know me for a savage. (Kipling.) 28. Take what you can get, was the old monarch's maxim. (Thackeray.) 29. It is forever indispensable for a man to fight. (Carlyle.) 30. The latest Gospel in this world is, know thy work and do it. (Carlyle.) 31. The man who is misunderstood has always this advantage over his enemies, that they do not know his weak point or his plan of campaign. (Chesterton.) 32. It is the fashion to say that the public will have what it wants. (Galsworthy.) 33. If they *do* right it is no matter that they like what is wrong. (Ruskin.) 34. When a man wants to murder a tiger he calls it sport; when the tiger wants to murder him he calls it ferocity. (Shaw.) 35. We give to the European, whose complexion is a sort of pink drab, the horrible title of a "white man"—a picture more bloodcurdling than any spectre in Poe. (Chesterton.) 36. In the course of another journey he narrowly escaped being swept away by an inundation of the Trent. (Macaulay.) 37. I wanted to pay my tribute to the sea, its ships and its men, to whom I remain indebted for so much which has gone to make me what I am. (Conrad.) 38. The idea of tracing historic origins and historical relationships cannot be absent from a compilation like the present. (Matthew Arnold.) 39. You have at present in England only one art of any consequence—that is, iron-working. (Ruskin.) 40. I want to put the case clearly before you, and I will therefore show you what I mean by another familiar example. (Huxley.) 41. This immensely stretched trade, which makes the capes of the Southern Ocean his wharves, and the Atlantic Sea his familiar port, centers in his brain only; and nobody in the universe can make his place good. (Emerson.)

EXERCISE 41

Explain the uses of *it* in the following sentences (see Sec. 345):

1. It is his mother that is responsible for his shyness. 2. It will be colder tomorrow, unless the wind changes. 3. It is said that two new office buildings are to be built next year. 4. It is easy enough for a firm man who knows the world to brook the rage of the cultivated classes. (Emerson.) 5. It is for want of self-culture that the idol of Traveling . . . remains for all educated Americans. (Emerson.) 6. It was the plumber who came to the house this morning. 7. The guide thought it safer to wait for daylight before attempting to return. 8. It is this universal nature which gives worth to particular men and things. (Emerson.) 9. A sturdy lad from New Hampshire or Vermont, who in turn tries all the professions, who teams it, farms it, peddles . . . is worth a hundred of these city dolls. (Emerson.) 10. It is evident that some remedy for this condition must be found, or it will become unendurable. 11. It is nearly time for us to leave the office. 12. During these early years Mark Twain was roughing it in the mining towns of the West.

EXERCISE 42

Point out the adjectives—single words, phrases, and clauses—and tell what words they modify. Specify predicate adjectives, objective complements, and other matters of interest (see Chapter XIV):

1. His smile only made matters worse, for it was supercilious. 2. The results of the test were beyond our expectations. 3. The cook made the pie too sweet. 4. At the birthday party she wore a made-over dress. 5. The rooms here are of small size. 6. The larger boy threw the ten-pound weight over the fence. 7. We found that the potatoes had boiled dry. 8. The relief party discovered the man dying from thirst. 9. They will select Monday or the day after for the annual meeting of the stockholders. 10. He prefers to drink his coffee cold. 11. The people in the burnt-over region are without homes. 12. They picked up a pebble round as a marble. 13. The action of the water and the sand had worn the pebble round as a marble. 14. I consider it unjust that I should be punished for his mistake. 15. People who expressed themselves roughly called her stolid. (Henry James.) 16. Fine manners show themselves formidable to the uncultivated man. (Emerson.) 17. Her masts were of pine, veined with amber. (Tomlinson.) 18. Sometimes an impending surge ap-

peared ready to overwhelm him. (Irving.) 19. Beyond the rocky chasm, which contained water, was a hillside covered with scrub, blazing like the Day of Judgment. (Masefield.) 20. In politics and in trade, bruisers and pirates are of better promise than talkers and clerks. (Emerson.) 21. All these would enter into the representation and render it at once more exact and more striking. (Macaulay.) 22. The ceiling was of paneled wood, with the exception of one strip at the side nearest the window. (Kipling.) 23. A tart temper never mellows with age, and a sharp tongue is the only edged tool that grows keener with constant use. (Irving.) 24. There were houses near Saint James's Park where fops congregated, their heads and shoulders covered with black or flaxen wigs, not less ample than those which are now worn by the Chancellor and by the Speaker of the House of Commons. (Macaulay.) 25. As long as all that is said is against me, I feel a certain assurance of success. (Emerson.) 26. The condition which high friendship demands is ability to do without it. (Emerson.) 27. The telescope makes the world smaller; it is only the microscope that makes it larger. (Chesterton.) 28. She was extremely fond of her father, and very much afraid of him; she thought him the cleverest and handsomest and most celebrated of men. (Henry James.) 29. The mist now lies along the base of the hills, leaving the ridges almost imperceptibly veiled and the rounded tops faintly softened. (R. P. Utter.) 30. Many of the traders, and those in their employ, were ruffians of the coarsest stamp, who vied with each other in rapacity, violence, and profligacy. (Parkman.) 31. But we are so fond of life that we have no leisure to entertain the terror of death. (Stevenson.) 32. The people know that they need in their representative much more than talent, namely, the power to make his talent trusted. (Emerson.) 33. The company will make good any loss incurred through mistakes of its employees.

EXERCISE 43

Name the grammatical tenses of the verbs in the following sentences, and tell the actual time that they represent (see Secs. 386 ff.). In case there is anything unusual about an example, explain it:

1. He is to bring me a souvenir of his visit to the South Seas.

2. Dr. Williams has written articles on business law for over twenty years. 3. Frederick Allen contributed articles to literary magazines for over twenty years. 4. There have been only two earthquakes in this vicinity since the founding of the city. 5. I was working in the country last summer. 6. The committee was planning to start its investigations next week. 7. I see that you have been appointed secretary of the Second Ward Republican Club. 8. The book is to be published in New York. 9. The battle was fought in August, 1815. 10. We have enjoyed our vacation this summer, especially the month which we spent in Colorado. 11. We enjoyed our vacation in Europe last summer. 12. The senator had expected to conduct a personal campaign, but when he became ill in July he gave up the plan. 13. The Pilgrims suffered many hardships during their first winter in America. 14. The patient suffered acute pain when the tooth was extracted. 15. This work was to be finished by next Saturday. 16. The sun rises in the east. 17. He rises every morning at six o'clock. 18. He will be ready at six o'clock. 19. He will be ready now. 20. They came before he had finished dressing. 21. He has been here during the past three months. 22. He was here during the first two months of last year. 23. If his story is true, he should not be allowed to come. 24. If you were ready, why did you keep us waiting? 25. If he were ten years older, he would be eligible for this position. 26. If the play was written by Shakespeare, it must have been one of his earliest efforts. 27. He would have been here, if he had known that you were coming. 28. I wish that he were a little more certain of the facts. 29. If he were to come next Saturday, could you arrange to meet him? 30. She acted as if she were unacquainted with the city. 31. He talked as if he had been mistreated by his former employers.

EXERCISE 44

Explain the use of the simple or the progressive form of the verb in the following sentences (see Secs. 413 ff.):

1. He thinks clearly on every subject but this one. 2. He is thinking of the money that he lost. 3. They work every night until two o'clock. 4. They are working every night until two o'clock. 5. He was hiding in the deserted house when his parents found him. 6. He was hiding in the deserted house while his

parents were looking for him. 7. John is playing ball in the school yard. 8. Henry plays first base on the town ball team. 9. We have been reading "The Return of the Native." 10. I have read "Ivanhoe." 11. I read Conrad's "Victory" yesterday evening. 12. They were reading "The Forsyte Saga" yesterday evening.

EXERCISE 45

Explain the use of the infinitives in the following sentences (see Secs. 424–437):

1. It is time to go for the mail. 2. The principal told them to bring their books to the examination. 3. The effect of this move will be to harmonize the different factions in the party. 4. It is too early for us to predict the outcome of the election. 5. The messenger has come to get the report of the last meeting of the directors. 6. The president wishes to thank the members for their co-operation with him during the year. 7. To complete the new federal building will require a million dollars. 8. He was thought to be the most conservative member of the firm. 9. This news is too good to be believed. 10. We have seen with what sagacious policy the French had labored to ingratiate themselves with the Indians. (Parkman.) 11. There is every reason to believe that he desired to make a good impression; and if he fell short of this result, it was not for want of a good deal of intelligent effort. (Henry James.) 12. It is easier to do the work myself than to show him how to do it. 13. It is as easy for the strong man to be strong, as it is for the weak to be weak. (Emerson.) 14. It is difficult to determine which tribe was first to raise the cry of war. (Parkman.) 15. I wish it to be sound and sweet, and not to need diet and bleeding. (Emerson.) 16. The little imps find time to do a man's work and to scuffle on the staircase between whiles. (Kipling.) 17. But with two pairs of oars in a light skiff, it was impossible to come up with them. (Burroughs.) 18. Besides, there is great danger that a man's first life-story shall clean him out, so to speak, of his best thoughts. (O. W. Holmes.) 19. The lamp began to burn low, and she found words to say, "I had better get another," but she did not move. (Howells.) 20. Bravely let him speak the utmost syllable of his confession. (Emerson.) 21. And therefore

a man must know how to estimate a sour face. (Emerson.) 22. It is better to lose health like a spendthrift than to waste it like a miser. (Stevenson.) 23. But, to tell the truth, there was never a hint of any break in their domestic harmony. 24. I am ashamed to think how easily we capitulate to badges and names. (Emerson.)

EXERCISE 46

Point out the adverbs—single words, phrases, and clauses; tell what they modify; give the class to which they belong (see Secs. 495 ff.):

1. It was bitter cold; and by a common optical effect, things seemed almost more definite than in the broadest daylight. (Stevenson.) 2. Then, though I prize my friends, I cannot afford to talk with them and study their visions, lest I lose my own. (Emerson.) 3. Beyond the room is a passage of polished wood, so polished that it gives back the reflections of the white paper wall. (Kipling.) 4. Delightful as London city was, King George I liked to be out of it as much as ever he could; and when there, passed all his time with his Germans. (Thackeray.) 5. He shivered on his verandah, not from cold but from uneasiness; he stayed an instant longer, half thinking that he saw something stir among the mita shrubs. (Masefield.) 6. We neglected all care of the ship, as worse than useless, and securing ourselves, as well as possible, to the stump of the mizzen mast, looked out bitterly into the world of ocean. (Poe.) 7. The bell was in the open air, and being overlaid with several inches of muffling snow, had lost its voice for the time. (Hardy.) 8. On the hill a big fire burned, illuminating fitfully a crooked corner of the station-house. (Conrad.) 9. For a long while he used to console himself, when driven from home, by frequenting a kind of perpetual club of the sages, philosophers, and other idle personages of the village. (Irving.) 10. He looked this way and that for some bough of another tree to spring to. (Charles Reade.) 11. Full of these ideas, I prepared myself with a pair of green spectacles, and called one fine morning, quite by accident, at the Ministerial Hotel. (Poe.) 12. Humility is so practical a virtue that men think it must be a vice. (Chesterton.) 13. They had stopped at this point to light a new torch from the stump of an

old one. (Masefield.) 14. Our chief troubles began when we got a King who gloried in the name of Briton, and, being born in the country, proposed to rule it. (Thackeray.) 15. Every man of the upper or middle class went daily to his coffee-house to learn the news and to discuss it. (Macaulay.) 16. All of them, however unspiritual on other days, were transfigured by the Sabbath influence. (Hawthorne.) 17. This from its weight had at last torn through the bank beyond it and gone in a torrent of mud and water into a ravine below. (Masefield.) 18. To-day being the seventeenth of April, I am sitting in an ulster under a thick rug, with fingers so cold that I can hardly hold the pen. (Kipling.) 19. The man who does his duty faithfully is worth a dozen well-dressed dandies. 20. Treat men as pawns and ninepins, and you shall suffer as well as they. (Emerson.) 21. Now, wherever he went, he left an indelible trail behind him on the glittering street. (Stevenson.) 22. The wind, which had been blowing east for several weeks, had veered to the southward, and the middle of spring had come abruptly—almost without a beginning. (Hardy.) 23. His age sat lightly enough on him; and of his ruin he was not ashamed. (Conrad.) 24. For an hour the pageant wound through the dejected street, pursuing neither method nor set route, till it came to a deserted slag-heap, selected for the speech-making. (Galsworthy.) 25. On Sunday afternoon the city pours forth its legions to breathe the fresh air and enjoy the sunshine of the parks. 26. They crowded round him, eyeing him from head to foot with great curiosity. (Irving.) 27. When Farmer Oak smiled, the corners of his mouth spread till they were within an unimportant distance of his ears. (Hardy.) 28. As I was thinking over this, in walking up Fleet Street the other day, my eye caught the title of a book standing open in a bookseller's window. (Ruskin.) 29. The only difference is that the nature of the inquiry being more abstruse, every step has to be most carefully watched, so that there may not be a single crack or flaw in your hypothesis. (Huxley.) 30. The remote nations of the west had also joined in the war, descending in their canoes for hundreds of miles, to fight against the enemies of France. (Parkman.) 31. You must try your hardest to create a good impression when you make your first speech. 32. The house that had once seemed so vast was full to bursting. (Howells.) 33. They were not likely to adopt a different course now that their friendship seemed a matter of no consequence. (Parkman.)

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